



HENRY FORD HOSPITAL  
International Symposium

The Leukemias  
Etiology, Pathophysiology and Treatment

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HENRY FORD HOSPITAL

International Symposium

# THE LEUKEMIAS

## Etiology, Pathophysiology, and Treatment

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## PREFACE

In the last two decades most of the medical disciplines have made dramatic and far reaching advances toward the control and cure of a major share of the diseases which appropriately pertain to them. In that portion of medical science which concerns itself with the leukemias the advances have been complex. It could hardly have been otherwise. Hematologists in the previous generation had achieved a higher insight into free-celled leukocytic structure than was true in the tissue organ areas of other disciplines. Consequently cytologic objectives whose functional significance was barely appreciated elsewhere were common place here.

This volume accomplishes two purposes. It gives the present complex position of leukemic etiology and pathophysiologic disturbance—a much needed knowledge of detailed leukocytic functions and comprehensive thought on the therapy of the leukemias. It establishes a basis of comparison with the earlier works of Downey and Forkner in this field in the late thirties and thus makes it possible to see with some clarity the extent of progress made. Actually the progress has been extensive and at an accelerated rate of speed.

Perusal of the material contained in this volume suggests some fascinating and challenging problems ahead. When hematology struggled for tools and methods other than the blood smear or the counting chamber its choices and decisions were limited. Once this point was passed however each investigator was faced with a new question: "What kind of approach do I wish to take?" The hematologist may literally choose for example between electron microscopic immunologic biochemical metabolic microbiologic endocrine genetic toxicologic and isotopic routes. Each investigator makes these choices according to his training and objectives. This volume details in quiet pages the aggregate achievements stemming from these personal decisions.

Coming a century after Virchow's and Bennett's recognition of leukemia this book as a whole—as well as almost every individual chapter—is in a very real sense the result of cooperative effort. The content of this volume arises from the proceedings of an International Symposium on *The Leukemias: Etiology and Pathophysiology* held at Henry Ford Hospital Detroit March 8-10, 1956. It is significant that this symposium was suggested and sponsored by the members of the

clinical staff of Henry Ford Hospital and its Executive Director Dr Robin C Buerki. It is a pleasure to acknowledge their consideration as well as the initiative and effort of the members of the program committee the fifty six participants and the more than four hundred fellow scientists who were in attendance.

*Detroit Michigan*  
*January 1957*

J W REBUCK

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Part I

The Leukemic Cell Its Structure and Antigenicity

Chairman

Wolf W Zuelzer

The Children's Hospital

Detroit Michigan

The Symposium was sponsored by the Henry Ford  
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# Electron Microscopy of Normal and Leukemic Leukocytes

MARCEL C. BESSIS

National Blood Transfusion Center Paris France

## General Considerations

The ability to make very thin preparations is one of the principal difficulties which interferes with the use of the electron microscope. This problem has been solved only since 1954 when a technique for obtaining extremely thin sections was developed.

Formerly one had to use the technique of spreading and the technique of casting and shadowing which can be applied to isolated cells only. In this way one can obtain excellent pictures of the cell surface. This process has led for example to the study of the surface of cells sampled by sternal puncture. But the existing technique does not show anything about what is inside the cell, and here lies the enormous advance accomplished by the ultrathin section technique. It is now possible to obtain preparations the thickness of which is in the neighborhood of  $0.02 \mu$ . As a result a white cell may be sliced into 800 sections. To get this surprising result took only a few improvements in the usual sectioning technique. The first and most important is the use of very hard embedding substances. After various researches in the paraffin field embedding in plastic has been adopted, the specific substance being butyl methacrylate. After dehydration the fragments which are to be sectioned are soaked in monomeric methacrylate which is later polymerized. The necessity of obtaining ultrathin sections led also to special adjustments of the microtomes. Ordinary microtomes with mechanical advance were used at first. These were replaced by the principle of thermic advances in which the block holder is tied to a metallic rod which is slowly heated by an appropriate apparatus and which expands out in proportion to the heat. In this way one avoids the inconveniences of mechanical advance always allowing a certain amount of slackening.



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Nevertheless for the time being good results may be obtained with either of these two types of microtomes

\* \* \* \* \*

It is important to appreciate that electron microscope sections cannot be interpreted in the same way as sections seen with an ordinary microscope. A fundamental point which distinguishes them lies in the staining process applied to the latter and this in reality consists of two processes. The first is well enough known. The proteins which make up the various structures of cells and tissues have variable properties as regards their chemical combination with or adsorption of more or less specific stains. The second which is generally overlooked is very important and depends on the fact that Canada balsam (or a similar mounting medium) is used this because of its refractive index suppresses everything which has not been fixed by the stain thus rendering the stained material all the more clear. The fundamental technique of classical hematology indeed is to show up structures which stain and suppress those which do not.

The structures which are suppressed in this way represent the confused mass of cellular and tissue proteins which have been coagulated and deformed by fixation and which if seen would appear in a very different form from that in which they normally exist. These are what are called artifacts. One forgets them because one does not see them the observer takes into account only the material which is stained and not the surrounding unstained material which is rendered invisible by the mounting medium. Although the unstained material is not seen it nevertheless exists.

When phase contrast is used otherwise unperceived differences of refractive index are revealed and these artifacts appear distinctly. The importance of structures which classical staining techniques render invisible now becomes apparent and it will be clear that the images furnished by staining techniques are simple and definite but also incomplete.

If this is true when ordinary histological preparations are examined with phase contrast instead of the ordinary microscope it is even more true when the electron microscope is used for the latter shows up the smallest artifact due to technique and the important problem of histological fixation has to be looked into anew from the standpoint of electron microscope technique.

There is a second fact which must be appreciated and which has to do with the physical conditions under which the image is formed in the

electron microscope. With the ordinary microscope the definition of structures is clear only in the focal plane. Objects situated above and below this plane are not seen. By varying the focus one can change the focal plane and in this way see a variety of different structures. This allows one to use sections of a reasonable thickness always with the condition that they are sufficiently transparent.

With the electron microscope the conditions are altogether different for the structures in different planes of the section are superimposed as seen either on the fluorescent screen or on the photographic plate. This makes it necessary to obtain ultrathin sections without these the electron microscopy gives nothing but fuzzy images.

• • •

There is a possibility that some day new techniques may be devised which will provide for the electron microscope the same advantages as are produced by staining and mounting in balsam. The salts of heavy metals could perhaps take the place of stains by becoming fixed to one or another histological structure and rendering it more opaque to electrons. This would be a sort of "electronic staining." By treating the fragment of tissue with a substance such as an enzyme or a simple solvent which would dissolve the modified proteins which fog the "electronically stained" structures the latter might be made to present a clear and distinct electron microscope image. Such selective dissolving out of material would have the same effect as the use of Canada balsam in classical histological technique.

#### Considerations Regarding Fixation with Reference to Electron Microscopy

Fixatives or fixing fluids which are considered as good from the standpoint of the ordinary microscope are not generally good from the standpoint of the electron microscope. The greater resolving power of which shows up more subtle alterations. Further the staining methods used in ordinary microscopy allow the use of fixatives which produce gross coagulation. Staining methods which reveal only unaltered structures do not call attention to these. It should be noticed that the phase contrast microscope which permits observation of the contents of the cell without the use of stains is no better than the electron microscope in concealing the effects of fixation.

Indeed as we proceed toward higher and higher magnifications with the electron microscope and toward the perception of smaller and smaller differences in refractive index with phase contrast microscopy

Nevertheless for the time being good results may be obtained with either of these two types of microtomes

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The structures which are suppressed in this way represent the confused mass of cellular and tissue proteins which have been coagulated and deformed by fixation and which if seen would appear in a very different form from that in which they normally exist. These are what are called artifacts. One forgets them because one does not see them: the observer takes into account only the material which is stained, and not the surrounding unstained material which is rendered invisible by the mounting medium. Although the unstained material is not seen it nevertheless exists.

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then still be necessary to determine the correct conditions of drying and freezing before comparisons with living cells could be made

Ideal fixation which immobilizes each molecule *in situ* is very difficult to achieve and occurs in special cases only. The use of the usual fixatives should accordingly be continued. Above all one should require of a fixative that it does not change the spatial arrangements of the soluble proteins and that it does not obscure them by the coagulation products of other soluble proteins. Fixatives which produce serious artifacts need not be absolutely rejected provided that they leave some structures for example the mitochondria unaltered and if the constituents which they alter can be eliminated in some secondary fashion for example by digestion. Used in this way the methods have a certain resemblance to the classical histological techniques which leave as unstained and invisible all structures which are not shown up by the particular method used. Finally the study of the artifacts themselves is often instructive.

### Material and Technique

We refer the reader to the works mentioned in the reference list in which the technique is revealed in detail (4 5 29 31 39 47). For the section method the material (blood bone marrow lymph node puncture etc.) is fixed with the solution of Palade (34 35) or of Dalton (23) treated with methacrylate according to the technique of Borysko and Swerdlow (19) and sectioned with the Sjostrand microtome (45) or the microtome of Porter and Blum (46).

The spreading technique and the method for spreading and casting have been described in earlier papers (7 8 12 13) and explained in a recent book (10).

### Structures in Leukocytes Revealed by the Electron Microscope

#### THE NUCLEUS

The nucleus does not present appreciable structure on spreading or casting. In sections it shows quite unexpectedly an appearance which is not very different from the one observed with phase contrast. It is darker than the other parts of the cell and its density depends on the condensation of the chromatin hence young cells have a rather light nucleus whereas in older cells the nucleus appears to be darker. It is limited by a dense membrane the thickness of which varies with the different cell species but which is always seen in young cells. This membrane sometimes presents some small thickenings which in older cells become more and more noticeable even forming clumps of

the problem of artifacts increases. It is no longer sufficient to retain a general outline of tissue and cellular structure; it is now necessary to preserve structural detail on a macromolecular scale. This is certainly a particularly difficult problem which has been the subject of several recent investigations.

#### THE CONCEPT OF FIXATION AS DEPENDENT ON THE SIZE OF THE OBJECT UNDER CONSIDERATION

When one considers structures in cells and in tissues which are near the limit of visibility provided by the ordinary microscope (i.e. as small as 0.2 to 0.1  $\mu$ ) fixation should mean the coagulation of the substances which make up these structures without changing their form—i.e. they are kept in their place so that there is no displacement visible at the magnification which the ordinary microscope provides. Histological fixation properly speaking seeks to coagulate the substances of living matter but the coagulation is not accompanied by a displacement of either the original or the coagulated material.

The idea of fixation changes somewhat when we enter the region of submicroscopic dimensions from 1000 Å to 50 Å which is that of molecular structures and investigated with the electron microscope. Now one should require that there shall be no displacement of macromolecules and that the bonds which unite them in the living cell shall be preserved. Considering only the proteins one is faced with the necessity of avoiding first the separation of macromolecules from each other by breaking down their bonds and introducing water (the artifacts of swelling and of solution) and second the production of masses by creating new bonds (the artifacts of coagulation and syneresis).

Finally a third region of size can be imagined, this being the molecular region below about 50 Å. In this region fixation would consist in immobilizing the molecules without changing them so that they could eventually be restored to their initial state for example when the activity of the enzyme molecule is restored to its original state. No denaturation of protein molecules would be involved. This result is obtained by only two methods: dehydration and freezing. *The test which allows one to say whether a cell or a tissue is fixed well or badly is difficult to define.*

In the case of the living cell the fundamental criteria are clear. Unfortunately they cannot be applied at present to observations with the electron microscope. One might think that one could use as a reference a cell which was dried in some standard way the constituents being immobilized by drying either preceded by freezing or not. It would

small granules their average diameter being about 100 Å. Others are made up of a network presenting smooth surfaces. This last structure had been observed before with the optical microscope particularly by Gonzales Guzman (28), Estable and Sotelo (27) and Zajdel and Morin (53). Electron microscopy has helped to confirm this observation as shown by Borisko and Bing (18) and Bernhard *et al.* (2). Sometimes nucleoli show vacuoles especially in pathological cells.

### THE MITOCHONDRIA

Mitochondria can be found in any kind of cell. Up to now hematologists have not attached much importance to them probably because they do not appear on Giemsa stained films. Electron microscope studies have shown that in animals and in plants the mitochondria have the same structure and that this structure is rather complex.

In leukocytes mitochondria are sometimes rounded or oval shaped, often elongated or even filamentous. Their average thickness is about  $0.5 \mu$ . Sections made for electron microscopy usually being about  $0.03 \mu$  one can understand that the picture which is obtained is bidimensional one does not permit the direct observation of the real forms that the mitochondria occupy in space. In order to examine them it is neces-



FIG. 2. Longitudinal section of a mitochondrion in a plasma cell. Note the presence of two dark granules in the matrix. These occur frequently.

chromatin big enough to be observed with the optical microscope

The inner part of the nucleus is made up of a mass usually not homogeneous in which it is rather difficult to distinguish an orderly structure. The nuclear membrane which is described above and which is the only one to deserve such a name is lined with an extremely thin external membrane. The latter may be seen only in very thin and greatly enlarged sections.

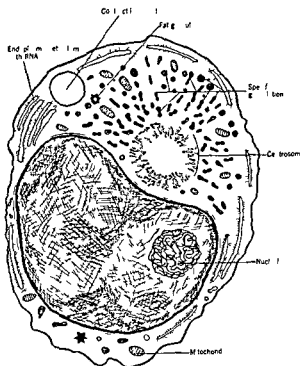


FIG. 1. Diagram of a section of neutrophilic promyelocyte as seen when observed with the electron microscope.

Recently the external membrane and the space limited by the two membranes have been studied extensively. This space is now considered as dependent on specific structures which have been revealed by the electron microscope and called the endoplasmic reticulum. After describing the endoplasmic reticulum we shall further describe this space.

The nucleolus is always darker than the background of the nucleus. Its structure varies with different cells depending on their age and perhaps on their functional stage. Some of them seem to be made up of



FIG. 4 Neutrophilic granulations (casting)



FIG. 5 Neutrophilic granulations (section)



sary to reconstitute their structure in space by using sections at several incidences or by examining a series of sections. Such reconstitutions have provided the following picture of these small structures (34-49).

Each mitochondrion is limited by a membrane the thickness of which varies between 10 and 25  $m\mu$ . Toward the inner part of the granule this membrane develops into a structure to which the name cristae or "crests" has been given. The appearance of these crests varies consider-

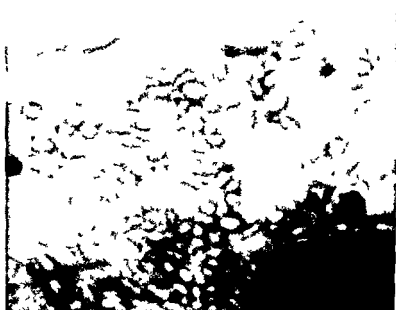


FIG. 3. Neutrophilic granulations (after spreading of the cell)

ably with the incidence of section and also it seems with the general shape of the mitochondrion. In certain cases the structure appears lamellar; in others villous. Sometime these lamellae appear quite regularly perpendicular to the mitochondrial surface; at other times they do not seem to be oriented. Their thickness is about 20  $m\mu$ , which is about the same as the thickness of the mitochondrial membrane.

Greater enlargement shows clearly that these crests and membrane are really made up of two coats, each with a thickness of about 8  $m\mu$ , and in between them there is a clear space of about 5  $m\mu$ . Here we reach macromolecular dimensions. One may consider that each coat which

## LEUKOCYTIC GRANULES

Granules in leukocytes have different forms depending on their nature and their maturity. Neutrophilic granules are elongated and rice shaped as the casting technique has already demonstrated the sectioning method shows them cut at various incidences which gives a great variety of forms.



FIG. 7. Eosinophilic granulations of the rat. Note the elongated aspect of the inner crystal.

Basophilic granules are usually homogeneous, very dark, and contained in a vacuole. In dog mastocytoma, certain metachromatic granules present an inner lamellar structure (17), but these are mastocytes and not basophilic granulocytes where, for the time being, such structures have not yet been described.

Eosinophilic granules, when they are mature, present an internal crystalline aspect of which seems to vary with species.

Immature and nonspecific granules (azurophilic with Giemsa) are spherical and easy to single out from mature granules or any leukocytic granules.

limits the crests or the membrane must be composed of two or three layers of protein or lipoprotein molecules

Membrane and crest limit a space usually denser than the cytoplasm and Palade has called this the mitochondrial *matrix*. With the enlargements we have considered here (about 50 000 diameters) it appears

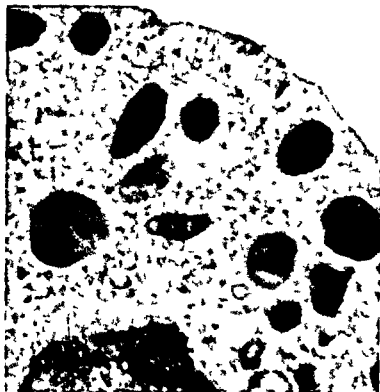


FIG. 6 Human eosinophilic granulations

structureless but very dense granules of 2 or 3  $\mu$  in diameter may sometimes be observed

In these granules everything—e.g. the aspect, the dynamism, the chemical composition and the universal distribution in every living being—indicates that they must assume a fundamental part in the mechanism of life. No doubt these purely morphological researches when they are completed by a study of the functional and pathological states of those small structures will soon lead to a better understanding of the mechanism of their action.

which applies to all the cellular formations described in 1903 by Roux and Garnier in their studies of pancreatic cells and the cells of the salivary glands

In young cells this reticulum appears as flattened bags often kept close to each other in parallel ranks. In mature cells it is rather scarce and appears as oval shaped or smoothed formations. The works of Palade and of a few other authors have pointed out the fact that the



FIG. 11. Lamellae of endoplasmic reticulum in a plasmocyte

walls of these bags are connected on one side with the cell membrane and on the other side with the external membrane outlining the nucleus. In sum it is a vast vacuolar network which may open itself at the exterior of the cell and which communicates at least transiently with the perinuclear space. When cells are altered by autolysis or immersed in hypotonic medium the reticulum endoplasmic bags swell (Weiss 52). We shall refer to this again later on but now we have to mention certain granules intimately associated with the bag of the reticulum which are known by the name of granules of Palade (36-37). The diameter of these granules varies between 100 and 200 Å. They absorb electrons rather strongly. A great number of them stick to the external face of the endoplasmic reticulum bags. They are never seen in the inner part of those bags but they exist frequently isolated especially in mature cells.



FIG 10 Zone of the centrosome in a plasmocyte. One can discern rather clearly the cisternae surrounding the centrosome.

They probably correspond to the ribonucleoproteins i.e. to the cytoplasmic basophilic material

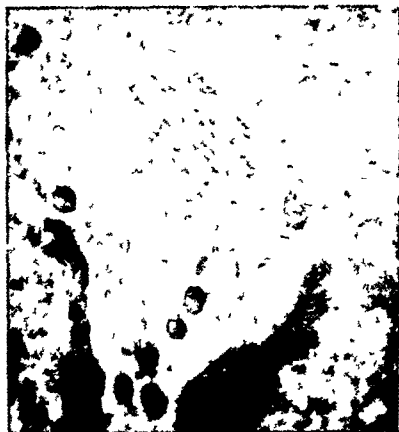


FIG. 13. A few bags of the endoplasmic reticulum in a leukemic granulocyte

#### THE PERINUCLEAR SPACE

We have seen that recent researches with the help of the electron microscope have demonstrated the existence of a membrane belonging to the nucleus and of an external membrane of cytoplasmic origin. Between these two membranes lies the perinuclear space which is connected to the bags of the endoplasmic reticulum. This space is not completed around the nucleus for one can see certain parts of the nuclear membrane which are directly related to the cytoplasm (51). On the other hand the works of various authors (37, 50, 51) have demon-



FIG 12 Bags of the endoplasmic reticulum surrounded by granules of Palade

They probably correspond to the ribonucleoproteins i.e. to the cytoplasmic basophilic material.



FIG. 13. A few bags of the endoplasmic reticulum in a leukemic granulocyte.

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strated that there is on the surface of the nuclear membrane a series of pores or asperities" at the level of which the two membranes are attached to each other. This very complex system is just beginning to be described and is at the moment the subject of active researches.

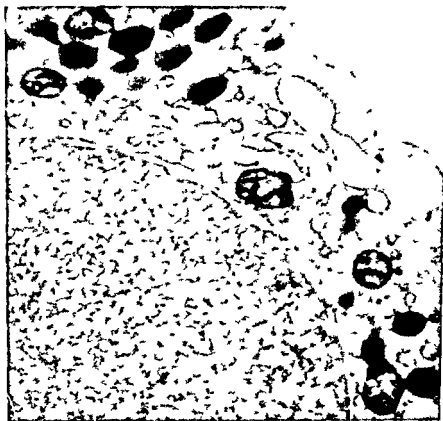


FIG. 14 Distention of the bags and the perinuclear space produced by hypotonicity

In so far as blood cells are concerned one may say that this perinuclear space was previously known and had been studied in living cells. In many cells after various forms of injury e.g. the action of certain drugs (26) of autolysis of hypotonicity and of antisera (8, 40, 41) one can notice the appearance of one or several internucleocytoplasmic vacuoles. These vacuoles also called "lunules" (26) are juxta-nuclear and grow precisely from the perinuclear space. Their form is due to the swelling of this space limited by the adhesive properties of these two membranes (Policard and Bessis '43 and in press).



FIG 15 Perinuclear space. Top: a mitochondrion surrounded by thick of endoplasmic reticulum

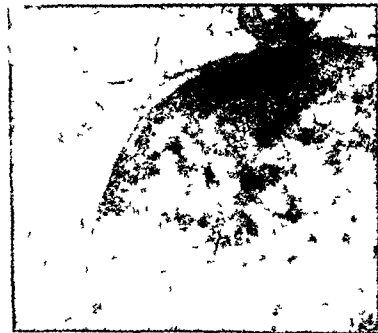


FIG 16 Crescent shaped protrusion of the external membrane of the nucleus (Polcard and Bessis)

## THE VACUOLES

With the electron microscope one can see numerous vacuoles in the cytoplasm of leukocytes the classification of which is still difficult. For the time being nothing permits us to distinguish degeneration vacuoles from contractile vacuoles or from the vacuoles of pinocytosis. Frequently there are some vacuoles due to the swelling of the endoplasmic reticulum bags these are recognizable by being surrounded by the granules of Palade or because the section shows a continuity between a bag and a vacuole.

Here we also might remark on the very special system of more or less dilated canaliculi of the mature megakaryocytes (10) the characteristics of which have not yet been defined and which have not been named.

Vacuoles filled with fat appear as very dark spheres. This appearance is due without a doubt to the fixation at their level of a great amount of osmic acid. Sometimes artifacts due to the coating the sectioning or the fixation cause retraction and give the vacuoles a starlike aspect which is quite characteristic.

## Ultracentrifugation of Leukocytes

The examination with the electron microscope of ultracentrifuged cells is very interesting. Ultracentrifugation allows the displacement of small structures inside the cell without killing it and thus permits a discrimination between certain artifacts and real structures. It is evident that the structures which have been displaced existed in the living cell. Furthermore the method allows one to concentrate in a same area of the cell particular molecules or small structures and in this way to emphasize what would have been unnoticed were they more scattered.

Let us recall briefly the results of ultracentrifugation of leukocytes examined with the optical microscope (6). Leukocytes have a piriform appearance the swollen part being at the centrifugal pole. The nucleus usually occupies a medial position. With high centrifugation its effects may be apparent on chromatin the upper pole of the nucleus becomes lighter and the chromatin masses gather at its lower pole. The nucleoli can be seen at the lower part of the nucleus. The arrangement of granules varies with their nature specific granules settle quite rapidly to the lower part of the cell mitochondria just above and lipid granules are found at the upper part of cell. The cytoplasmic basophilia concentrates always in a strictly limited zone above the nucleus when the cell presents granules and below when it does not. Sometimes a big vacuole appears at the upper pole of the cell. Often colorless with Giemsa sometimes showing a pale pink color this vacuole does not in

dicate either degeneration or cellular death since within an hour the cell resumes an apparently normal activity.

Electron microscopy has led to the precise determination of numerous points (9-15).

Small cytoplasmic structures of ultracentrifuged leukocytes settle as follows from the centrifugal pole to the centripetal pole: (1) specific granules, (2) nonspecific granules, (3) mitochondria, (4) endoplasmic

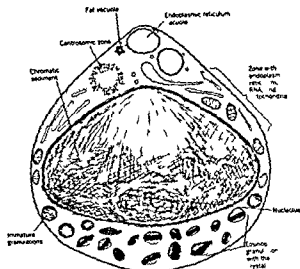


FIG. 17. Diagram of a section of an eosinophil promyelocyte after centrifugation.

reticulum lamellae, (5) vacuoles, some of them originating from the swelling of endoplasmic lamellae, and (6) fat granules.

The nucleus usually settles in the middle of the cell; it is often split into two parts: the upper one made of nuclear juice, the lower one made of dense chromatin. These two parts may be entirely separated.

The cytoplasmic basophilia usually concentrates above the specific granules. In the cells without granules, it is at the same level as the chromatin masses. Basophilia is not always related to the endoplasmic reticulum.

The zone of the centrosome and the Golgi apparatus always settle above the nucleus but below the vacuoles of the apical pole. Small vacuoles and canaliculi, which form the Golgi body, move about as a solid whole.

Perhaps the two most important results of these observations are the concentration of basophilia, which seems to be due to the granules of

Pale but not always related to the endoplasmic reticulum and the fact that the Golgi body remains unchanged in its morphology and moves about as a whole

### Electron Microscopy of Leukemic Cells

Investigators have attacked the problem of the morphology of the leukemic cell with the electron microscope from two different directions: the search for a virus and the search for submicroscopic malformations of the cellular constituents. We shall summarize their observations here.

#### SEARCH FOR A VIRUS

As is well known many viruses are visible with the electron microscope not only in the isolated state but also within the cells in certain special circumstances. Some investigators have therefore turned their efforts in this direction. They have been encouraged by the study on Rous sarcoma cells of Claude *et al* (22). In the hyaloplasm of sarcomatous cells these authors discovered the presence of spherical granules of about 700 Å in diameter, extremely opaque to electronic radiations and not found in nonsarcomatous control cells. Previous ultrafiltration and ultracentrifugation studies (21) had shown that the infective particle must have precisely these dimensions. These observations were therefore acclaimed.

In 1950 Oberling *et al* (33) described similar granulations in human leukemic cells and put forward the hypothesis that this was the leukemic virus. Shortly afterward, however, it was admitted that comparable appearances were to be found in normal cells (1, 14).

We may therefore say that the search for a virus in leukemic cells has for the moment received a setback. This does not imply, however, that the virus is not there: for it might be concealed (in the nucleus, for example) or it might pass through phases in which it forms part of the host cell proteins and so be unidentifiable. As Bernhard *et al* (3) suggest in the case of Rous sarcoma, it might only be present in one cell out of 100 or 1000. It might also be represented by one of numerous sorts of granulations of all shapes and size found in the cytoplasm of leukemic cells.

There is no *a priori* reason for thinking that the virus should be any more opaque to electron rays than any other cellular proteins. With regard to the Rous sarcoma, for instance, Claude's studies in particular have shown that the virus has a molecular weight and chemical composition very close to those of the ribonucleoprotein microsomes of normal cellular protoplasm. It is difficult to see why one should expect

to be able to distinguish the virus in cancer cells from other cytoplasmic particles of identical composition and molecular weight

#### SEARCH FOR SELECTIVE MALFORMATIONS

*Myeloblastic and Myelocytic Leukemia* The cells of these forms of leukemia have the property of spontaneous spreading on certain car-



FIG. 18. Leukemic cell with an Auer body (casting)

riers. Their hyaloplasmic veil is very thin and therefore can be examined directly.

This method and that of grinding and destruction (7, 8, 10, 12, 13) allow the majority of known granulations to be recognized and identified.

Among all the granulations to be seen in normal and leukemic myeloblasts one is visible under the ordinary microscope and is probably characteristic of leukemic myeloblasts—the Auer bodies. They are

paracrystalline rod shaped more or less slender lozenges measuring about 0.5 to 7  $\mu$  across. The electron microscope shows them very plainly. It also shows the existence of microcrystals (7) invisible under

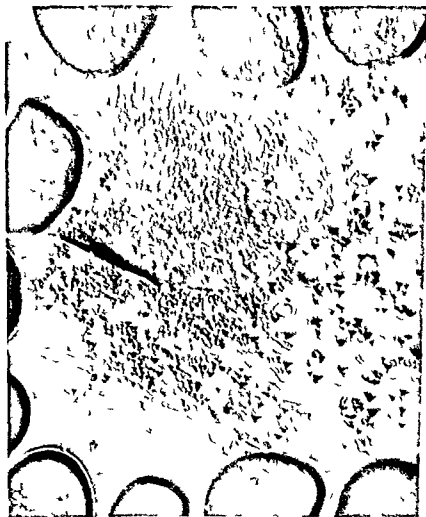


FIG. 19 Leukemic cell with an Auer body (after crushing)

the ordinary microscope and these may be found in cells without any large crystals. As these formations have so far been observed only in leukemic cells they certainly deserve further study.

Details have been obtained about malformations of cells especially the granular anomalies previously described with the ordinary microscope



FIG. 20. Rod-like mitochondria of leukemic lymphocytes.



They vary greatly in number from one cell to another some cells have almost none at all whereas others are practically full of them. The form of the granulations themselves is very much modified some are two or three times as long as usual. Moreover the majority of the cells present very few rod shaped granulations and a large number of round ones.

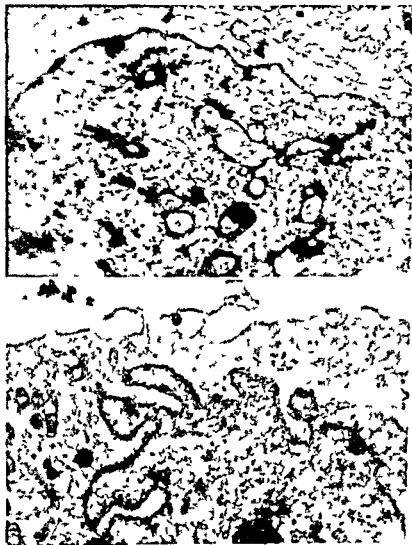


FIG 21 Edge of the nucleus of a Sternberg cell. Upper: sectioned perpendicularly to the surface. Lower: tangentially sectioned showing the way in which the cytoplasm seems to indent the nucleus.

which is the reverse of normal. This probably represents the survival of immature granulations in cells with mature nuclei and is just one of the forms of anarchy in nucleocytoplasmic development.

The method of sectioning has given greater precision to the form of these malformations in particular in so far as the nucleoli are con-



FIG. 2. Nucleoli 'bead-like' appearance containing vacuoles.

cerned (cf. Figs. 22 to 25). Moreover it has shown a few curious formations which we shall provisionally call "crescent-like zones" (11).

These are clear spaces, the largest of which sometimes measure about 3 by 1  $\mu$ . Their shape is usually elongated and sometimes bent. Their form depends naturally on the incidence of the sections. In several cells smaller spaces are found; these are smooth and measure about 0.05  $\mu$  across. The content of these formations presents two principal aspects. Sometimes it appears as a rather filamentous mass with a few whirling

points at other times it is made up of granulations of regular dimensions the average diameter of which is around 250 Å. No dense cytoplasmic structure penetrates them. No precise line surrounds them. Their limits are therefore well defined by the difference between them and the cytoplasm.

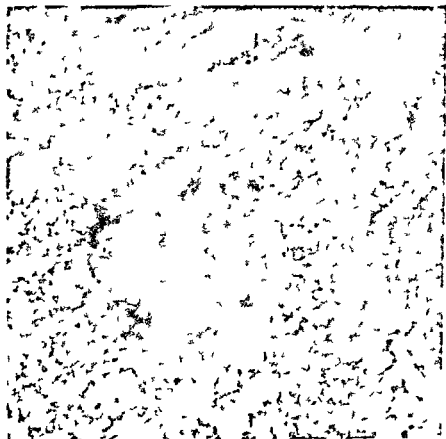


FIG. 23. Nucleoli. Thinly reticulated appearance.

These formations appear in 3 to 30% of leukemic cells. They have never been seen in mature cells, only in myeloblasts and promyelocytes, i.e. in young stages.

These formations are absolutely distinct from the centrosome and the Golgi body. One may in the same cell observe the formations side by side.

In several cases we have been able to make series of sections which

have shown the very elongated egg-like shape of this peculiar zone. The hypotony of the surrounding medium which modifies considerably the aspect of the cytoplasm and of the ergastoplasmic formations does not interfere with its appearance.

The formations seem to be a form of cytoplasmic degeneration unseen

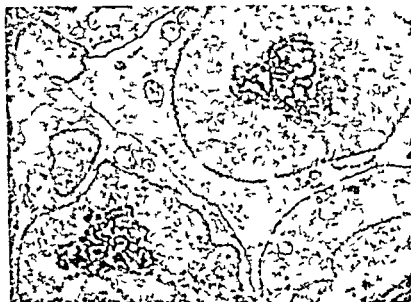


FIG. 24 Nucleoli Appearance in loose reticulum

until now in normal cells they do not exist either in all cases of leukemia or in all the cells of the case where they have been observed. These zones remind one in many ways of the "degenerative zones" noticed in certain cells affected by a virus such as the zone of degeneration shown by Koprowski (32). Therefore nothing in the present state of our knowledge allows us to advance more than a mere morphological supposition. Furthermore there are a quantity of granulations of various sizes not yet classified the importance of which remains to be found.

*Lymphoblastic and Lymphocytic Leukemia* The grinding technique has permitted curious formations to be disclosed (7). Among the mitochondria have been observed rods with rounded ends numbering from two to twenty per cell the largest measuring from 1 to 15  $\mu$  in length by about 0.2  $\mu$  across and the smallest being considerably beyond the resolving power of the ordinary microscope. The rods are sometimes

arranged parallel and very close to each other. These formations can not be likened to Auer bodies for they are found in lymphocytes and not in myeloblasts and in chronic leukemia whereas Auer bodies characterize acute leukemia. In addition these rods appear to be formed dur

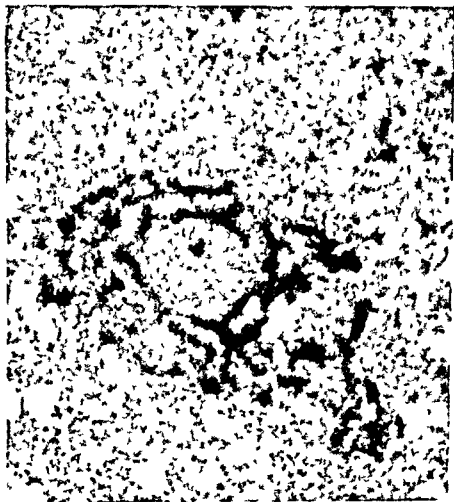


FIG 25 Nucleoli Reticulum appearance with a vacuole

ing the crushing. In this aspect only they resemble Charcot's crystals. Finally, they are found only in some lymphocytic leukemias and never in myeloblastic or monocytic leukemias. On one occasion however some were observed in a plasmocytoma.

*Mouse Leukemia* In experimental leukemia of AK mice various authors (25a-30) after destruction of the cell have described the presence of numerous particles measuring 100 to 130 Å across which they attribute to the possible presence of a virus

The technique of sections (15-16) has shown in addition to the mal



FIG 26 Mitochondria liberated by the destruction of cells these swell and reach enormous dimensions (bottom and right) Compare their size with the ones of mitochondria contained in the cell

formations already described in the nucleus and in the cytoplasm a great number of granules scattered in the cytoplasm the nature of which is unknown (they may be granules of Palade) as well as a few crescentlike zones



FIG. 27 Crescent shaped body in a leukemia cell

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FIG. 27 Crescent shaped body in a leukemia cell

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blasts. We were in hopes that this technique would enable us to see a patient with acute leukemia in which we would be unable to identify positively the type of cell that the blast is and then subject it to sectioning and identify the cell. We admit that we cannot do this as yet.

I felt for a while that the lymphocytes had a more prominent collection of nuclear material at the periphery of the nuclear membrane. When the cell is a little bit more mature this is true but in most immature forms of the blast cells the nuclear material looks the same to us in both types of leukemia. We are a little disappointed in this but we have been unable to distinguish between blasts with phase for similar reasons.

We are interested in plasma cells and we feel that identification with electron microscopy is important. In a patient who had multiple myeloma and was doing very poorly the cells were exceedingly immature.

In the more mature cells of which you have all probably seen publications the endoplasmic reticulum lies in folds. This makes identification easy. Most myeloma cells have this appearance too but in most immature cells the amount of endoplasmic reticulum decreases so that the cell is not so easy to recognize as a plasma cell as the more mature forms are.

Another patient had a marrow filled with plasma cells and when we sectioned them we could not recognize any and suddenly we realized that actually we were seeing very immature cells.

Dr. Palade at the Rockefeller Institute is making a review of the findings of endoplasmic reticulum in all types of tissue in which it has been described and it is in every cell as far as we know. The material takes on two forms: one in which there is a whole series of membranes as you will see in the mature plasma cell and one in which it is separated and forms ovoid or circular bodies. This is further divided into the "rough and smooth" form in which there is a smooth outline to the endoplasmic membrane and the "rough" form in which the membrane is composed of a series of small dots called particles of Palade. The rough form is designated as ergastoplasm to conform with the older description of this material and endoplasmic reticulum for the smooth form. Whether these terms will persist in the nomenclature I do not know.

Palade further relates the endoplasmic reticulum to the membranes of the cell. In other words it is in close association to the cell membrane and to the nuclear membrane. Apparently it plays an important role in the functions of the cell. In this respect the folds of the endoplasmic reticulum are more prominent in plasma cells than in any other cell in

## Added Comment

Q B DE MARSH

University of Washington Seattle Washington

We agree essentially with the things that have been described by Dr Bessis in the nucleus of the lymphoblasts the nuclear membrane the changes in the nucleolus and the content in general of the cytoplasm

The mitochondria are of the type Dr Bessis described We think (and I believe most people agree) that in all electron sections of other types of tissue the cristae are positive identification of the mitochondria

Another point in these cells is that we don't see the number of mitochondria in granulocytes nor do we see the amount of endoplasmic reticulum also called ergastoplasm in human cells as has been described in animal cells That is also true of the material we have on megakaryocytes We do not see the same number of platelet membranes and so on in megakaryocytes in human material as we see in animals

The red cells do not section well with this type of fixation When we started three or four years ago we had a great deal of difficulty in finding a fixative in which we could fix white cells and get good results We tried formalin fixation which was successful on red cells but it is not very satisfactory for white cells Using Palade's suggestion of 1% osmic acid fixative we remove the material from the marrow or peripheral blood and fix it immediately Rapid fixation is absolutely essential if artifacts are to be kept at a minimum We feel after three and a half years of this that most of what we see in these cells are reliable findings and are not artifacts

In myeloblasts of acute myelocytic leukemia we find the same things as described by Dr Bessis but we do not find the area that he described in these cells peculiar to myeloblasts We have noted his publication on this which is a recent one We have gone through all our sections on acute leukemias of both types and have been unable to find similar areas

We are also unable in the number of cases of acute leukemia that we have observed to tell the difference between lymphoblasts and myelo

## 2

### Phase Contrast Microscopy of Leukocytes

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Phase contrast microscopy has been adopted in the last fifteen years as one of the best methods for examination of living cells and bacteria and has proved even better and more accurate than darkfield illumination. Jones (36-37) was the first to report findings with this method in hematology. He especially studied the erythroblasts and showed that mitochondria could easily be demonstrated in the cells as typical dark granulations round the nucleus corresponding to the clear zone in the cytoplasm. Since his reports about forty papers have appeared concerning the study of the blood cells and the cells of the blood forming organs (1-7, 18, 20, 24, 26-34, 38-44, 45-47, 49-53). Albertini (2) was the first to use the method in experimental pathology for the study of tumor cells. Zollinger (55-59) has also made extensive studies of normal and pathological cells of different organs and we ourselves have been using the method in hematology since 1944.

**Method.** A very small drop of blood or of the punctured organ (lymph nodes, spleen, bone marrow) is put on a clean fine slide (normal glass slides can be used but the best results are obtained with fine quartz slides). This drop is covered with a clean large cover slip and a slight finger pressure is applied for a moment on the surface of it in order to flatten the cells as much as possible. The best results are obtained if the layer of cells is very thin and flattened. The cover slip is then sealed at the edge with a fine layer of Vaseline to avoid evaporation and movement of the fluid.

**Supravital Staining.** Kosinow (40) has demonstrated that in phase contrast microscopy of blood cells the fluorochrome *Acridine Orange* because of a marked affinity for the plasma proteins and its capacity to give a good illumination is very suitable for supravital staining. The cell

the peripheral blood or the bone marrow. We feel they are in some way related to the production of the proteins by this cell.

Something that has not been described previously to our knowledge is a storage plasma cell. We have seen this cell both in normal human marrow material and in rat marrow material. Its cytoplasm presents big endoplasmic reticular sacs filled with material. We don't know whether or not it is protein, but these areas do stain basophilically.

I might add here that the configuration of eosinophils is different in the rat than in the human material. It is blocked more, and you do not see the type of crystal formation in human material that is so apparent in the eosinophil of the rat.

Now I should like to discuss the capillaries of bone marrow. There has been an argument about capillary material in the marrow—what the capillaries are like and whether they are closed or open. Our sections of capillaries show the open type in vessels of very small caliber.

In viewing the capillary wall we find areas of incompleteness. We do not think this is an artifact because we see it very frequently in sections that are otherwise technically good. As the thickness of the capillary wall increases we do not see these spaces. The theory is now that material can pass from the extravascular cell right through the endothelium and into the capillary space. This has been suggested in other types of tissue.

In closing I should like to say that although we have found many interesting things in bone marrow sections and peripheral blood sections in leukemia we do not feel we have a diagnostic tool yet. We have spent most of our time on normal material to become oriented. We may not use these observations clinically except perhaps in plasma cell leukemia or multiple myeloma or if we can find something in the future blast cells that may be applicable clinically, but certainly we now are able to correlate some of the anatomical observations with the biochemical observations.

## 2

### Phase Contrast Microscopy of Leukocytes

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Phase contrast microscopy has been adopted in the last fifteen years as one of the best methods for examination of living cells and bacteria and has proved even better and more accurate than darkfield illumination. Jones (36-37) was the first to report findings with this method in hematology. He especially studied the erythroblasts and showed that mitochondria could easily be demonstrated in the cells as typical dark granulations round the nucleus corresponding to the clear zone in the cytoplasm. Since his reports about forty papers have appeared concerning the study of the blood cells and the cells of the blood forming organs (1, 7, 18, 20, 24, 26, 34, 35, 44, 45-47, 49, 53). Albertini (2) was the first to use the method in experimental pathology for the study of tumor cells. Zollinger (55-59) has also made extensive studies of normal and pathological cells of different organs and we ourselves have been using the method in hematology since 1944.

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structure and its changes in living condition can be observed in color very nicely

### Observations with Leukocytes

Our findings with leukocytes (45) have been confirmed by many other investigators (Ludin 43 Bessis and Bricka 12 15 Feissly and Ludin 26 Ackermann 1 and others) The morphological findings in neutrophils eosinophils basophils monocytes lymphocytes and plasma cells have been described in detail by us (45) and by others (12 43 etc) and recently again by Ackermann (1) For the essential findings we refer the reader to the figures and their legends (Figs 1-10) For further details see the previous literature



FIG 1 Neutrophilic leukocytes phase contrast [Wild Heerbrugg (Switzerland)] Notice the typical fine grayish granulation which is dispersed throughout the whole cytoplasm

Instead of presenting morphological details it may be better to give an account of some of the new findings and possibilities which this method has given us for the study of leukocytes and their precursors in the blood forming organs First I should like to say that I have been surprised at how accurate the previous methods of examination of blood cells in the dried and fixed smears have been This is especially true for our staining methods with vital or postmortal stains So the study of fixed and colored cells will still remain an essential method in hematology On the other hand it should be pointed out that phase contrast



FIG. 2 Eosinophilic leukocyte (*right*) shows much darker granulation with granules of varying size in comparison to neutrophil (*left*). Typical of eosinophils is a light area appearing in the center of the granules when the focusing adjustment is moved rapidly back and forth.

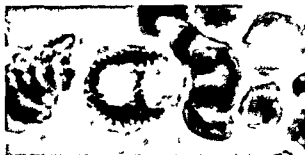


FIG. 3 Basophilic leukocyte shows very dark intense granulation the granules being very numerous with almost no space between them. The granules are smaller than those of eosinophils and darker than those of neutrophils.



FIG. 4 Basophilic myelocytes in bone marrow showing the same granulation.



microscopy and especially motion picture photography of living cells by phase contrast has enabled us to see more clearly the smaller structures of the nucleus and the cytoplasm.

This is particularly so for the mitochondria which could usually not be seen by the common staining techniques and which could only be

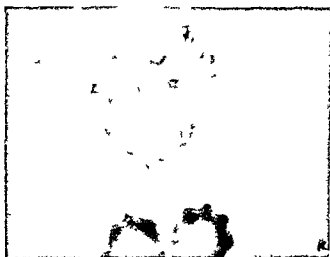


FIG. 5. A typical monocyte with kidney shaped nucleus and fine grayish granulation in the cytoplasm. The vacuoles probably represent phagocytosed material.



FIG. 6. Lymphocytes showing fine grayish granulation and less cytoplasm than the monocytes.

imperfectly visualized with special stains. As Jones (36-37) has already pointed out they usually appear unstained in the colored cytoplasm leaving a clear zone round the nucleus. With phase contrast microscopy however these mitochondria can be seen extremely well and the effects of different influences on their behavior can be studied directly under the microscope. The centrosome is usually only seen as an ungranulated round spot which shows up very clearly when the cells are filmed with the slow motion camera (see Fig. 7). This has been extensively studied by Bessis (11), Franke (27-28) and Ludin (43). The centrosome remains as a moving round spot near the nuclear border.

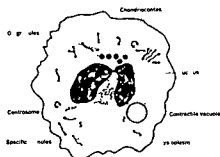


FIG. 7. Essential findings in slow film observation of leukocytes. For further details see text. (From Bessis (11).)

and the mitochondria and the granules in the cytoplasm move together from one side to the other with the centrosome with an oscillating movement. Also striking are other slow movements of the granules in the neutrophils and the other leukocytes. Taken with a slow motion film adapter and then reproduced at a higher speed very interesting movements of the granules can be seen. The same is true for the uneboid movement of leukocytes and also for phagocytosis. With this film technique very interesting contractive vacuoles studied in detail by Bessis (11) can be demonstrated. On a heated slide the details of mitosis of the blood cells can be shown nicely in all its stages.

### Special Active States of the Mitochondria

#### LYMPHOCYTES

The lymphocytes may show some very bright shining round corpuscles called *Glanzkörner* by Noller (49) in infectious hepatitis. At the moment it is not known what they really represent. But they are very different from the bright shining agglomerations of round corpuscles

near the nucleus of a megaloblast (*Kugelhaufen*) which we observed (45) and which was confirmed by Czerski and Pawelski (20) Discombe (23) and White (54) (see Fig 9)

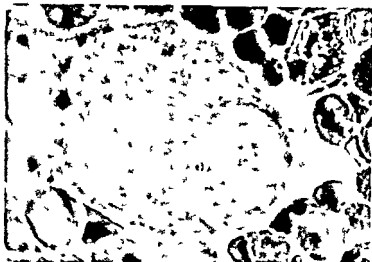


FIG 8 Megakaryocyte—an extremely large cell with fine granulation of the entire cytoplasm. The amount of cytoplasm is large when compared with that seen in tumor cells (Hodgkin's etc.)



FIG 9 Typical bright shining agglomerations of small granules in the centrosome of megaloblasts. With May-Grunwald stain megaloblasts show only a clear unstained area (left) in place of the *Kugelhaufen* (Moeschlin) seen with phase contrast (right)

## RETICULOENDOTHELIAL SYSTEM

**Myeloma Cells** If one studies myeloma cells (45) which are abnormal plasma cells producing pathological globulins mostly of the gamma type one can find enormous dark granules developing round the

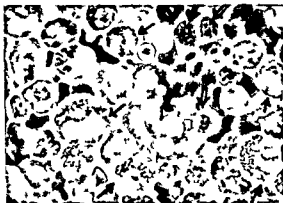


FIG 10 Typical normal bone marrow in phase contrast showing normal neutrophilic myelocytes and metamyelocytes (single arrow) and erythroblasts (double arrow)



FIG 11 Typical myeloma cells showing dark coarse granules around the nucleus probably mitochondria in an especially active phase producing globulin. These cannot be seen as granules with normal May-Grunwald stain but sometimes appear as bright areas around the nucleus with the normal stain. The same can be seen in plasma cell during immunization

mitochondria in these cells (Fig 11) It is very likely that they are concerned with the production of some form of globulin it may be that they are mitochondria in a special active phase producing these globulins

*Infectious Mononucleosis Cells* These show (45) distinct rather coarse and very irregular dark granules (see Figs 12 and 13) This



FIG 12 Typical mononucleosis Pfeiffer cells of reticular origin These always show a few coarse dark granules of varying size scattered irregularly through the cytoplasm Notice the large amount of cytoplasm in contrast to leukemia cells and the absence of any pronounced nucleoli These dark granules possibly related to globulin production are very similar to those seen in small reticulum cells in bone marrow in active plasma cells and in myeloma cells



FIG 13 Mitosis of the same cell form in the peripheral blood

differentiates them from the lymphocytes (see Fig. 6) which never show these large dark granules but have small fine grayish mitochondria. We think that these dark granules too may be special active mitochondria producing some globulins. The presence of special antibodies in this disease leading sometimes to a positive Paul Bunnell test or to a positive Wassermann reaction is well known. This presumption is only theory at the moment but some other findings which we report below make it much more believable. It is interesting that these mononucleosis cells may also occur in other diseases—in hepatitis in rubella typically in a South American rickettsiosis and in some drug idiosyncrasy.

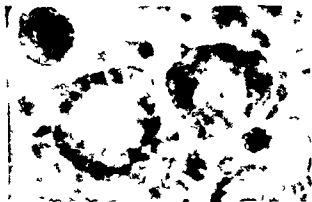


FIG. 14. Small reticulum cells from the bone marrow with dark granules around the nucleus probably very active forms of mitochondria perhaps related to some globulin synthesis.

crasies such as reactions to phenobarbital and PAS (Cannemeyer *et al* 19). They seem to be a special response to certain reactions connected with the production of some antibodies and not to a specific virus.

**Small Reticulum Cells.** A special form of large active dark mitochondria very similar to those in myeloma cells can also be seen in reticulum cells of the bone marrow (see Fig. 14).

**Plasma Cells.** The same granules corresponding to large active mitochondria can be observed in plasma cells and their evolution followed during the process of immunization. Since the interesting work of Fagraeus (25) the relation of plasma cells to the production of specific antibodies is well known. Our finding of these dark granules probably concerned with this antibody production has been confirmed by Jeschal (33), Hanaoka (30) and Curletto (19). Jeschal has shown that these granules which cannot usually be seen by the normal staining methods

and come out very clearly with phase contrast microscopy (see Fig 15) can be stained by special methods. By methanol fixation one may employ the staining of Regaud Benda or if osmium fixation is used the Altmann Kull method of coloring can be adopted. This confirms our hypothesis that these large dark granules are mitochondria in a special active phase producing some form of globulin.



FIG 15 Different developmental stages of plasma cells in the red pulp observed under the phase contrast microscope (From Moeschlin *et al* 48) (a) Typical transitory form of a reticular cell as it is to be seen principally on the second and third days (b) Mitosis of a young plasma cell. Here a few dark granules can already be noted in the cytoplasm (c) Young plasma cell on the fourth day containing numerous dark granules (d) Fully developed half mature plasma cell on the fifth day with numerous dark granules (e) Mature plasma cell on the sixth day. Note the decrease of the granules in size and number (f) Old plasma cell on the ninth day without any granules in the cytoplasm

#### Experimental Phase Contrast Studies in Plasma Cells during Immunization

In previous work (47) i.e. in experimental immunization experiments with rabbits we tried to demonstrate that these granules may be related to the production of antibodies. Rabbits were first sensitized with an injection of relatively small doses of typhoparatyphoid vaccine. Approximately three weeks later when a positive agglutination titer could be demonstrated in the blood an intravenous revaccination with a greater dose was administered. This injection leads to a strong plasma cell reaction in the red pulp of the spleen and after several days to a remark-

able rise of the agglutinin titer in the blood as was shown by the instructive experiments of Fagraeus (25). Our investigations confirmed the excellent investigations of Fagraeus showing that a remarkable rise of the anti body titer occurs between the fifth and sixth days together with a maximal rise of the plasma cells in the spleen (see Fig 16). Our phase contrast experiments also showed that active immunization causes

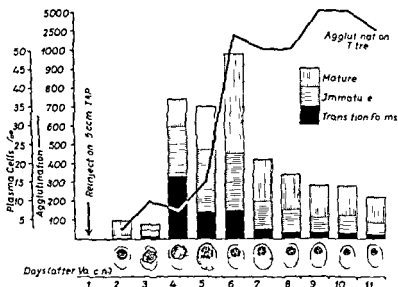


FIG 16 Antibody formation and plasma cell reaction in the rabbit. A vast plasma cell reaction appears in the spleen of sensitized animals its peak being on the sixth day (3 X 24 hours) after the 1 injection of TAB vaccine. The phase-contrast microscope reveals an abundance of dark granules in the cytoplasm of the plasma cells the peak being reached on the fifth day. These granulations disappear with the appearance of antibodies in the blood and cannot be traced anymore on the ninth to tenth days. (From Moxelin et al 18.)

analogous changes to take place in the cytoplasm of the plasma cells during the first 5 days just as occur in certain myeloma cells producing pathological globulins (see Fig 11).

At the time of revaccination of the rabbits an impressive plasma cell reaction appears in the red pulp of the spleen before the rise of antibodies in the blood. The plasma cell reaction reaches its peak after 5 days. The antibodies begin to rise slightly during the first 4 days and the maximal rise occurs after 5 days (that is on the sixth day).

Subsequent to our previous observations on myeloma cells in the phase



contrast microscope we investigated mainly the problem of similar cytoplasmic changes in the experimentally caused plasma cell reaction through the injection of vaccine. It was interesting to see that granulations in the cytoplasm quite similar to those in myeloma cells appeared in the reticulum cells (plasmoblasts) during the transformation into young plasma cells. The many droplike dark granules in the cytoplasm can be demonstrated by phase microscopy of living unaltered plasma

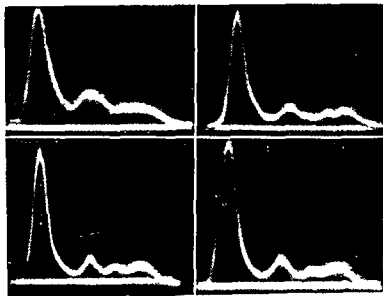


FIG 17 Electrophoretic studies of rabbit serum after typhoparatyphoid immunization on the second fifth and tenth days. The gamma globulins show the appearance of a distinct second peak from the fifth day.

cells of the splenic pulp. These granules appear to be formed by mitochondria which change into these large granules between the second and third days (see Fig 15b) and even more intensively on the fourth and fifth days (see Fig 15c, d). These experiments have been confirmed since by Hanaoka (30).

The most striking observation was the fact that these granules quickly reduced in size as well as in number simultaneously with the strong rise of antibodies (see Fig 16) on the sixth day (5 days after the injection of the vaccine). On the eighth to tenth days practically no such granules are to be seen in mature plasma cells and only a few young cells still contain them. But this granulation of the cytoplasm of the plasma cells appears mainly in the early phase of immunization. It occurs only dur

ing the apparently functional active phase of the plasma cells. These changes show a distinct tendency to recede after the appearance of antibodies. Electrophoretic studies of the rabbit's serum during typhoparatyphoid immunization showed the appearance of a gamma globulin as a distinct second peak after the fifth day (see Fig 17).

In another experiment (Moeschlin and Demiral 46) with phase contrast microscopy we were able to demonstrate that plasma cells taken out of the spleen during the active immunization process may still produce antibodies even if washed several times in saline solution. Observed on a slide under the phase contrast microscope the added typhoid

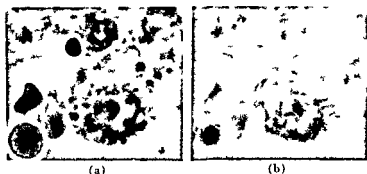


FIG 18 Washed plasma cells of rabbit spleen on the fifth day after immunization with typhoparatyphoid vaccine. These two pictures show two different planes within the same cell (From Moeschlin and Demiral 46). (a) Typical plasma cell with many dark large granules probably mitochondria producing antibodies. (b) Agglutinated paratyphoid bacilli on the same cell but no agglutinated bacilli on the other cells (lymphocytes etc.). For further details see text.

bacilli agglomerated on the surface of the plasma cells and not around the other cells (lymphocytes, leukocytes and other reticulum cells). These plasma cells still contained the dark granulation. So one may draw the conclusion that these washed plasma cells can still actively produce some antibodies under the cover slide which lead to the agglutination of the bacilli on the surface of the cells (see Fig 18). Controls with cell specimens taken out previously or later during the immunization process showed no distinct agglutination.

### Tumor Cells

A distinct advantage in the observation of tumor cells by phase contrast microscopy has been demonstrated by several authors (Albertini 26, Zollinger 55, 59, etc.). The great advantage is that the nucleoli

can be demonstrated sometimes much better than in the fixed and stained preparations. This is especially true for the cells of a tumor nature found in gland and tumor punctures in pleural and ascitic effusions and in the blood in leukemia cells. More numerous and distinct nucleoli can be demonstrated by this method than by the staining technique (Fig 19). Also the granulations in the cells may appear more obviously and clearly by phase contrast microscopy than by the normal observation in stained films. So many blast forms which show no granulations in the

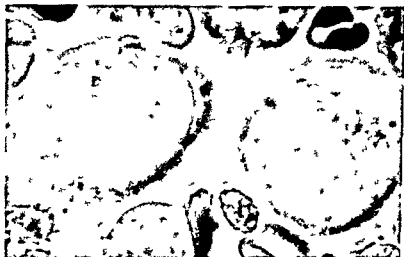


FIG 19 Pathological blast cells of acute lymphatic leukemia showing multiple very large dark gray nucleoli. The nuclei show a tendency to lobulation. Cytoplasmic granules are sparse, coarse, and lie mostly about the edge of the nucleus.

usual colored slides show distinct granules when observed under phase contrast. Auer's bodies, which are present rarely in stained smears of myeloid leukemia cells, are encountered very often with phase contrast (see references by Ludin, Bessis, Moeschlin, etc.). Brausil (18) in Yugoslavia has drawn attention to the fact that phase contrast microscopy may be helpful for the differential diagnosis of blast forms to see if they belong to the myeloid or lymphatic series. As seen in her work, the blasts of myeloid origin, myeloblasts, usually show tiny delicate granules scattered almost regularly over the whole cell. In contrast, however, the blast forms from lymphatic and probably also from reticular origin (Moeschlin) show a very scanty granulation lying close to the nucleus. This method can be useful in deciding what therapy, steroids or antifolate drugs, should be given. We have seen some cases, however,

where no granulations at all were present and then differentiation may be impossible

*Lymphosarcoma* Phase contrast microscopy has been very helpful in the differentiation of lymphosarcoma from other glandular diseases. The lymphosarcoma cells can be clearly differentiated from other small tumor cells as for example bronchus carcinoma cells or Brill Symmers (lymphoblastoma follicular) cells by the presence of very large numerous and distinct nucleoli which show up much more obviously than in the normal stained smears. In phase contrast however the cells of one of our gland punctures which were diagnosed by the pathologist in the histological preparation as typical lymphosarcoma cells did not show these typical nucleoli. Therefore in this case a diagnosis of small bronchus cell carcinoma was presumed and later confirmed by autopsy. In Brill Symmers disease the nuclei are very often lobulated and of different size and show dark zones in the nucleus.

### Summary

The present status of phase contrast microscopy in leukocytes and in their precursors and neoplastic transformations has been reviewed. Phase contrast microscopy may be a very useful method for studying the finer submicroscopic structure of the living cells. It has also confirmed the accuracy of previous findings with the different vital and fixation coloration techniques and emphasized their continuing value in clinical and experimental hematology. Phase contrast filming of cells in slow motion and projection in fast motion have proved to be very useful for the study of special problems in the movement of granules, centrosomes, mitochondria and leukocytes and macrophages.

One of the most essential points and advantages of phase contrast microscopy lies in the very excellent demonstration of the mitochondria. This method has enabled the demonstration of special active phases of the mitochondria i.e. probably as antibody producing structures during immunization.

The method is very helpful for the study of tumor cells and enables a better demonstration of the nucleoli and sometimes also of granules in these cells. This is especially true for leukemia cells in which granules may be seen that cannot be demonstrated by the normal coloring techniques; also Auer's bodies may be detected which may not be found by the usual techniques.

Phase contrast may be of value in the differentiation between lymphatic blast cells and myeloid blast cells. The myeloblast shows a tiny delicate granulation scattered almost regularly over the whole cell.

the lymphoblastic leukemia cells more often show a scanty coarse dark granulation lying close to the nucleus

The method may also be applied in the differentiation of lympho sarcoma cells from other tumor cells because of the very numerous large distinct nucleoli seen by phase contrast observation

Thus phase contrast microscopy has proved to be a valuable method in the clinical and experimental study of the blood cells and their precursors and in neoplastic transformations especially in combination with the more standard methods previously employed

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## Added Comment

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In reviewing Dr Moeschlin's paper there are certain things that have always seemed to be of the utmost importance with respect to research with phase microscopy as it pertains to leukemic cells. I believe Dr Moeschlin was one of the first to use phase microscopy with the idea of describing variations in nucleoli. We have known for some time that the nucleoli are important from a metabolic standpoint but their importance in diagnostic work has been largely overlooked because of the use of May Grunwald Giesma preparations or the dry smear preparations in which the presence of nucleoli is questionable. They may even be distorted or destroyed. They may be concealed and masked by the density of the chromatin.

Dr Moeschlin emphasized the importance of studying nucleoli with phase microscopy showing that in lymphosarcoma for example nucleoli are large, numerous and fairly dark. It is easy to separate these cells from leukemic cells or cells from follicular lymphoblastoma. In contrast to the large, numerous, dark nucleoli in lymphosarcoma he has pointed out that in such conditions as malignant reticulosis there may be two to four dark but small nucleoli. In the blastoma cells the nucleoli are small, less numerous and lighter. These differences are missed in ordinary preparations. I feel that his studies with phase microscopy emphasize the fact that we have been overlooking certain of the cellular structures. We are now using phase microscopy to interpret the routine preparations—to uncover some of the details that have been hidden so to speak.

There is another aspect to the utilization of phase microscopy in the study of leukemic cells—the study of the effects of the various technical procedures on the living cells to determine the alterations which are brought about by the fixatives as well as the stains so that by a combination of the standard preparations plus phase microscopy we can re-evaluate some of the structures we have been looking at for a number of years.

In order to emphasize the use of phase microscopy in the study of leukemia cells I have selected material from three or four sources. One is from a young lady in Yugoslavia Dr B Brausil (1954). Dr Moeschlin has already presented illustrations from her paper. The other material is from articles by Rind and Otto (1954) on the development of a technique for first studying cells by phase microscopy and then studying the same cells with routine procedures either May Grunwald Giesma or Wright fixation.

The paper by Brausil is of interest in that contrary to the experience of Dr DeMarsh with the electron microscopy of leukemia cells Brausil with phase microscopy contends that myeloblasts and lymphoblasts can readily be separated from each other. If one is unable to establish a diagnosis in routine preparations it can readily be accomplished by phase microscopy of the living cell. I am presenting this material primarily because her views are very specific and clear-cut and there may be many who will not agree with them. In my own mind I have been wondering whether or not the leukemias she studied were sufficiently undifferentiated or acute so that perhaps there was a difference. Another point with reference to her paper is that here are seemingly identical cells in the dry smear preparations stained with May Grunwald Giesma stain which are *extremely basophilic* and do not have cytoplasmic granules but when Dr Brausil examined the preparations with phase microscopy she noticed quite a difference in the cytoplasmic content of these presumably basophilic or lymphoid cells without granules. Dr Moeschlin made this point some years ago—namely cells that appear to be similar in ordinary preparations look quite dissimilar in the living state with phase microscopy. Dr Brausil also pointed out that the mitochondria or the granules as she calls them were over the nucleus. I want to lead up to some of my work on the influence of the cytoplasmic organoids on the production of nuclear patterns in leukemic cells which are necessary for accurate cellular identification.

Illustrations in Dr Brausil's work depict routine preparations of cells which are practically identical. With phase contrast Dr Brausil found that in myeloblastic leukemia the granules or mitochondria were finer and more regularly distributed throughout the cytoplasm. In the lymphoblastic leukemias they tended to be more rounded plump and larger and they aggregated closer to the nucleus. She also pointed out that these cytoplasmic bodies are over and beneath the nucleus but when a dry smear preparation is made from such a cell by flattening it out these bodies are then impressed into the nucleus and contribute to what we have called parachromatin for a number of years. Therefore some of



the nuclear pattern, as will be shown later is contributed by the constituents in the cytoplasm. Nuclear pattern is not a reflection of the nuclear activity alone.

Other examples from the acute leukemias which Dr Moeschlin has already shown are paramyeloblastic and paralymploblastic leukemias. The more numerous and finer mitochondria are in the former whereas the larger and more vesicular type are in the latter.

Cells from a case that was presented to Dr Brausil for diagnosis are also illustrated. The cells were identified originally as myeloblasts in the routine preparation but when studied by phase microscopy they were found to be lymphoblasts. So whereas the diagnosis was in doubt in a routine preparation it was made certain by phase contrast microscopy and later it was affirmed at autopsy. Dr Brausil has studied over 500 cases of leukemia in 10 years and she attributes her success in diagnosing them to the fact that she flattened the cytoplasm as much as possible before examining the granules (mitochondria) by phase microscopy.

Next I should like to mention that when we study preparations of this type we say here is a certain cell in a routine preparation. Or putting it the other way round here is a cell in a phase contrast preparation what does this cell look like in a routine preparation?

One way of accomplishing this is illustrated in an article published by Rind and Otto in which they describe a technique for the dyeing of phase contrast preparations. They examine living cells and then keep the cell in question within the field, raise the objective of the microscope and unstain the preparation as though it were on a hinge with a razor put in fixative and wash and stain it with the cover slip and everything in place. After the preparation has been treated thoroughly the cover slip is put down on the slide and the objective lowered. The same cell that was being studied with phase microscopy should be stained and in the field.

This technique was applied by Weykam (1955) in a study of nuclear configurations of the granulocytes especially the neutrophils. With this type of procedure (*Phikopräparatfärbung*—which is a contraction for phase-contrast stain preparation) the unstained living neutrophils may be seen with the dark contrast phase microscopy and also in outline of the nuclei. Following the same cells through we may see it with phase plus staining as well as with brightfield microscopy after staining.

Weykam contended that in routine preparations there is a faithful reproduction of the nuclear configurations as seen in the living cell either by supravital or phase contrast preparations. The only difference

is that the fixative methyl alcohol causes some cell shrinkage. This is one way of solving the problem of studying living cells in one preparation and staining them in a different way in another preparation and then correlating the findings. With Rind and Otto's technique the same cell may be studied under different conditions.

Some years ago I tried to accomplish this with a little different idea in mind. I wanted to find out what happened to dry smears during the staining and fixing processes. They were mounted in a drop of 10% formalin in order to apply subsequently other staining techniques. Bright and dark phase contrast pictures of an unstained erythroblast show the mitochondria. We took the same cells on a cover slip preparation, marked them with a diamond point and then treated them with Sudan black or stained them in various ways. We even stained them with Wright's stain and then examined them with a brightfield microscope. Mitochondria are seen in the Wright's preparation as negative or light images. A considerable amount of shrinkage was noted. These preparations were originally dry smears.

One of the reasons for doing this was to dissect the cells more or less optically and find out what produces nuclear pattern or contributes to it. The main problem was to determine what happens in order to produce nuclear patterns like those shown in the plate of Dr. Downey's on "Leukemic Reticulo Endotheliosis" published in his Handbook. They have a peculiar cytoplasm and characteristic nuclear pattern. By making dry smears, mounting them in formalin and studying them with phase contrast, it is possible to make optical sections above through and on the other side of the nucleus such as are described below.

In dry smears of lymphatic leukemia the nucleus is flattened out with mitochondria or cytoplasmic organoids impressed into it from both surfaces in varying degrees. The blood from the same patient was studied in a routine stained preparation. Now if we go back to these routine preparations and study the nuclear pattern we can trace things in the nuclear area, namely the light areas, and find that some of this pattern has been contributed by the cytoplasm.

In a similar preparation but from a case of acute myeloblastic leukemia optical sections above through and on the other side of the nucleus are seen by means of camera lucida drawings with dark contrast phase microscopy. Cells stained with May Grunwald Giesma from the same patient show at one point the cytoplasmic organoids coming in and forming a little bay over the edge of the nuclear membrane. There is a shelflike projection of nucleus beneath. These organoids were car

ried in over the nucleus and gave rise to some of the pattern which has been called parachromatin

I have been particularly interested in cells from patients with leukemic reticuloendotheliosis. Optical sections above through and on the other side of the nucleus from such a case can be obtained. The case we studied is like the ones Dr Hal Downey depicted in his Handbook.

Optical dissection shows us that most of the patterns or outlines of light material in the cytoplasm can be explained by the presence of underlying organoids. Similar images can be found over the nuclear area. Therefore the nuclear pattern of cells in these leukemias especially the very acute ones is not a reflection of the activity of the nucleus alone but is a reflection of what is going on in the cytoplasm as well as the nucleus.

## General Discussion

DR GEORGE O GEY (Baltimore Maryland) As one who has spent considerable time and effort in using phase techniques and in comparing phase techniques with electron microscopy in examining various cells I should like to make just a few comments regarding the papers that have been given.

I think a great effort should be made to simplify our concepts of the dynamics of cell behavior. Some of Dr Bessis's schematic representations really leave us in the woods without seeing the trees at least at times. There are some simple evaluations that I think can be introduced here and one is that all cells have plasma gel membranes which rapidly incorporate materials from the environment and much of what we see inside cells if we study them with motion pictures and phase microscopy can be shown to be derived from the surface membranes. This was mentioned by one of the speakers in connection with the interpretation of the ergastoplasm or of the endoplasmic reticulum as being related to the plasma gel membrane.

Many of the various bodies which one finds in these cells are indeed in some cases derived from the environment and often especially in degenerative conditions as a result of phagocytosis.

Also our interpretation of the presence of crescents might be considered seriously as evidence of these cells having phagocytosed such materials. We should not consider all such materials as special organelles which are specific to the cell's organization.

The process of using thin sectioning and ultracentrifugation can give us a lot of valuable information regarding differences in organelles. One might add here that we can ultracentrifuge living cells for many hours at body temperature without apparently harming them at all even when the gravitational forces are in excess of

100 000  $\times$  g I am delighted that we have had an opportunity to see how complex this problem can become

DR S. DeCARVALHO (Cleveland, Ohio) Since I did not hear this mentioned I should like to point out a technique for phase microscopy which was developed by Barker in Oxford for the distinction between free nuclei and intact small cells

It consists in suspending the material in 28% bovine albumin. Since albumin does not penetrate the cell the cell membrane is clearly visualized. The halo is reduced and the amount of cytoplasm relative to the size of the nucleus is much more evident which gives a better idea of the nucleocytoplasmic ratio

In our experience this technique proved very helpful in distinguishing lymphoblasts from myeloblasts and other details in cell structure and in controlling nuclear preparations



### 3

## Antigenicity of Leukocyte Fractions<sup>1</sup>

STUART C. FINCH

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Our initial interest in leukocyte antibody was derived from attempts to demonstrate the mechanism of the LE phenomenon through the use of heteroimmune leukocyte antiserum. Rabbit sera prepared against human leukemic granulocytes produced *in vitro* agglutination, lysis and phagocytosis of normal human granulocytes by monocytes and polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Many of the cells produced on incubation with this antileukocytic serum closely resembled LE cells but certain differences in action of human LE factor and leukocyte antibody were noted. In any event the use of this experimental antiserum demonstrated clearly three mechanisms by which leukocytes may be altered and rendered susceptible to removal from circulation in the presence of leukocyte antibody.

Evidence now is accumulating rapidly that leukocyte antibody is responsible for the production of many human leukopenic states. This includes those observed in newborn infants, chronic idiopathic agranulocytosis, chronic inflammatory disorders, and after either the ingestion of certain drugs or the administration of multiple transfusions. The immunologic mechanisms involved probably are similar to those involving the erythrocytes (e.g. acquired hemolytic anemia) and platelets (e.g. thrombocytopenic purpura).

It is recognized that it would be of considerable value to have available potent cell type specific antisera for the purpose of identifying immature leukocytes and treating certain leukocytic disorders and for the ultimate problems involved in the preservation and transfusion of

<sup>1</sup> This discussion includes observations from studies done in collaboration with Drs. Joseph F. Ross, Franklin G. Ebaugh, Jr., Antonio Capano, and J. W. Hollingsworth.

leukocytes. Experimental leukocyte antisera possess considerable cell type specificity but it has not been known which portion of the leukocyte is responsible for its antigenic properties. In order to investigate this problem further studies were undertaken to determine the capacity of leukocyte nuclei and cytoplasm to provoke antibody responses and

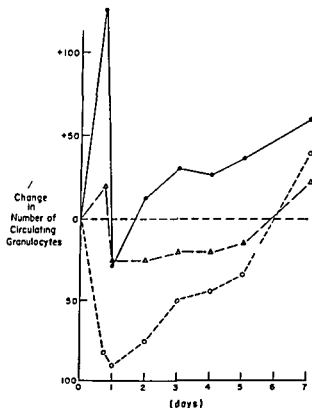


FIG. 1. The average per cent change in the number of circulating granulocytes for each group of guinea pigs after the injection of normal or leukocyte fraction antisera. Each group contained a minimum of 10 animals. ●—● Normal Rabbit Serum; Δ—Δ Nuclear Antiserum; ○—○ Cytoplasmic Antiserum.

to evaluate the hematologic effects of each antiserum *in vivo*. Antisera to particulate fractions of guinea pig splenic cells and peritoneal exudates were prepared in rabbits. Potter homogenization and differential centrifugation methods were employed for the separation of the nuclear and cytoplasmic components. Single intraperitoneal injections of either 2 ml or 3 ml portions of each antiserum were administered to 5 normal guinea

pigs and frequent hematologic studies were made during the ensuing 10 days. A significant and persistent granulocytopenia was produced in all animals which received the heteroimmune granulocytic cytoplasmic antiserum (Fig 1). The response to the administration of granulocytic

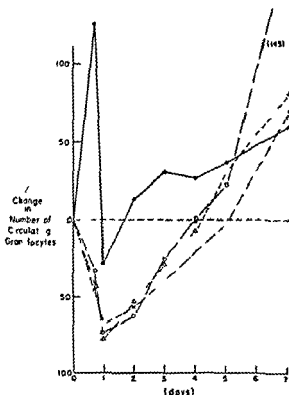


FIG. 2 The average per cent change in the number of circulating granulocytes for each group of guinea pigs after the injection of normal or leukocyte fraction antisera. Each group contained a minimum of 10 animals. •—• Normal Rabbit Serum; ○—○ Mitochondria Antiserum; Δ--Δ Microsome Antiserum; x--x Supernatant Antiserum.

nuclear antiserum was much less striking. Although little lymphopenia developed, immature lymphocytes appeared in the peripheral blood of guinea pigs in response to the administration of splenic cell nuclear antiserum. A persistent increase in the number of circulating granulocytes was observed after the injection of splenic cell cytoplasmic anti-



serum. In contrast no consistent or persistent depression of the number of circulating leukocytes occurred in guinea pigs which had been injected with similar amounts of normal rabbit serum (Fig 1). These studies seemed to indicate that the antigenic properties of guinea pig granulocytes reside principally in the cytoplasmic portion of the cell.

Additional studies then were made in an attempt to compare the antigenic activities of subfractions of granulocyte cytoplasm. From guinea pig granulocytes the mitochondria, microsome and supernatant protein fractions were prepared through differential centrifugation and injected

TYPE OF SERUM	SALINE DILUTIONS OF INACTIVATED ANT SERA									
	1:1	1:10	1:20	1:40	1:80	1:160	1:320	1:640	1:1280	1:2560
MITOCHONDRIA #1	+	++	+++	++	++	++++	++	±	0	0
MITOCHONDRIA #2		++++	++	++++	++			±	0	0
MICROSOME #1	++	++	++++	++++	+++	+	±	0	0	0
MICROSOME #2		+	+++	++++	+++	++	+	++	±	0
SUPERNATANT #1		±	±	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SUPERNATANT #2	++	++	+	+	±	0	0	0	0	0
NORMAL	+	±	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

FIG. 3. Granulocyte agglutinin titers to granulocyte cytoplasmic antisera.

into normal rabbits. The rabbit antisera produced were tested both for their leukocyte agglutinating capacity and for their ability to induce granulocytopenia *in vivo*. From 4 to 6 normal guinea pigs were given intraperitoneal injections of one of the antisera and frequent hematologic observations were made over the course of the next 7 days. A profound granulocytopenia developed in practically all the animals given any one of the cytoplasmic fraction antisera. In most instances it persisted for periods up to 3 or 4 days and was followed by a polymorphonuclear leukocytosis (Fig 2). For the *in vitro* agglutination studies serial saline dilutions of inactivated aliquots of each antiserum were used. Fresh peritoneal exudate leukocytes were used as the antigen in a concentration of about 35,000 per cubic millimeter. Except for the low agglutinin titer of the final protein supernatant antisera, all the others correlated closely with the *in vivo* response (Fig 3). From this study it was concluded that all three granulocytic cytoplasmic fractions prepared by this method have comparable antigenic properties.

The fractionation method employed for these studies certainly did

not produce entirely pure fractions. Each of the particle fractions studied probably contained some of the smaller components. It is quite clear however that each particle fraction contained little or none of the larger particles. For example the mitochondria fraction contained no nuclei but some microsomes. With these considerations in mind it is apparent that most of the leukocyte antigenicity is localized in the cytoplasm but probably is not restricted to any one of its individual components.

Future progress in the field of leukocyte immunology appears to depend on the development of improved techniques for the detection of leukocyte antigen antibody reactions. It is firmly believed that a complete understanding of leukocyte immunologic reactions is the key to understanding the mechanism of many clinical leukopathic states.



# 4

## Some Studies on Leukocyte Agglutinins<sup>1</sup>

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Agglutinins have been demonstrated in the sera of patients with acquired hemolytic anemia (3) and thrombocytopenic purpura (1, 7) and these have been distinguished from naturally occurring anti red cell (8) and antiplatelet agglutinins (12). Leukocyte agglutinins have been demonstrated in various clinical conditions including leukemia (5, 6). Some of these diseases are listed below. Some authors have implicated these agglutinins as the causative factors for the leukopenia in these diseases.

- Neutropenia
- Neutropenia with hemolytic anemia
- Neutropenia with thrombocytopenic purpura
- Chronic pancytopenia
- Pyrimidin sensitivity
- Sulfapyridine sensitivity
- Virus pneumonia
- Infectious mononucleosis
- Lupus erythematosus

The purpose of this presentation is to describe some studies concerning the naturally occurring leukocyte agglutinins.

Goudsmit and van Loghem (6) tested the sera of 100 healthy donors against type O white cells. They found weakly positive reactions in 10 instances. Dausset *et al* (5) studied the sera of 300 normal donors for the presence of agglutinins to compatible leukocyte suspensions and failed to demonstrate any.

Dausset (4) cites some unpublished experiments in collaboration with van Loghem in which combinations of 50 normal sera and 50 correspond

<sup>1</sup> This research was supported in part by Grant No. C-2406 from the National Institutes of Health and by a grant from the Smith Kline and French Foundation.

ing varieties of white cells were tested for leukocyte agglutination. They observed frequent but inconstant agglutinations in the combinations which were incompatible for the A, B, and O system.

Moeschlin and Schmid (10) tested blood samples of 30 persons in 380 leukocyte serum combinations without regard for A, B, and O blood groups. They noted leukocyte agglutination in 60 cases of the 380 combinations which were incompatible with respect to the A, B, and O blood groups and they concluded that this agglutination was caused by the blood group specific iso agglutinins. This conclusion was drawn in spite of the absence of leukocyte agglutination in two thirds of the cases in which on the basis of the intensive erythrocyte agglutination they would have expected leukocyte agglutination. The authors thought it improbable that a low serum titer of group specific erythrocyte agglutinins could be responsible for the absence of leukocytic agglutination.

### Methods

Plasma was handled with sterile technique and stored at  $-20^{\circ}$  until used. Sequestrene was the anticoagulant throughout. All glassware was siliconized and the metal parts were coated with Arquad each time the equipment was used. The silicone was stripped from the glassware after each usage by soaking in 10% NaOH solution. Blood was collected for the preparation of white cells in the following manner. A needle was inserted in the antecubital vein and blood was allowed to flow up to the mark of a 15 ml centrifuge tube containing 1 ml of 1% Sequestrene and 1.25 ml of dextran having an intrinsic viscosity greater than 0.41. The centrifuge tube was covered with Parafilm and inverted gently three times. The blood was allowed to settle for about 30 minutes and the supernatant was removed. The white cell counts were usually between 10,000 and 15,000 per cubic millimeter. This plasma contained platelets and about equal numbers of red cells and white cells. The plasma samples and leukocyte suspensions were adjusted to pH 6.9 by the addition of 1/9 N citric acid. Methyl orange was used as an indicator and about 1 drop of acid was required for each 0.4 ml of plasma and about 0.3 ml of acid for each 7 ml of leukocyte suspension.

When a diluent was required in preparing serial dilutions a nonreacting type A plasma of low titer was used after it had been absorbed with type B cells.

Plasma leukocyte agglutinin tests were performed by mixing 0.15 ml of white cell suspension with 0.40 ml of test plasma and 1 drop of 30% bovine albumin in a  $10 \times 75$  mm serological test tube. This was incubated in a water bath at  $37^{\circ}$  and read after 2 hours. Each test for leuko-

cycle agglutination was performed on at least two and in some cases three different occasions. The leukocytes were resuspended after incubation by shaking the test tube quickly about six times. A drop was poured on a glass slide and allowed to flow out in a thin layer by tilting the slide. The slide was studied for white cell clumping under the low power of the microscope either with reduced light or with phase microscopy.

Anti A and anti B blood grouping plasmas were prepared as follows. About 5 g of a potent dried anti A blood grouping serum of rabbit origin was dissolved in a minimal (17 ml) amount of low titer type A plasma previously absorbed with type B red cells. Anti B blood grouping plasma was prepared in a similar manner. Serial dilutions of the anti A blood grouping plasma caused a trace of agglutination of type A red cells to a titer of 1:128. Similar tests of the anti B blood grouping plasma showed a trace of agglutination of type B red cells at a titer of 1:256.

The naturally occurring agglutinins which involved an incompatibility with respect to the type A blood group were tested for inhibition by specific polysaccharide blood group A reagent<sup>3</sup> in the following manner. One drop of specific polysaccharide was added to 0.4 ml of the type O or type B plasma which was to be tested. This was incubated for 30 minutes at 25° before being added to the leukocyte suspension in the test for leukocyte agglutinins. A positive control test for leukocyte agglutinins contained in the type O or type B plasma was always run. A second control consisted of 1 drop of specific polysaccharide blood group A reagent being incubated with the type O or type B plasma before addition of a 2% suspension of type A red cells in saline.

The ability of plasma to cause erythrophagocytosis in the presence of incompatible red cells was tested as follows. Red cells which were incompatible with respect to the ABO group of the plasma being tested were washed three times in large quantities of physiological saline. One half milliliter of a 2% suspension of these red cells was centrifuged and the supernatant was discarded. One half milliliter of a leukocyte suspension in plasma collected in the usual manner was added to the sedimented red cells. These were resuspended by gentle agitation and incubated for 2 hours at 37°. After resettling for 1 hour smears were prepared from the sediment. These smears were stained with Wright's stain and examined for erythrophagocytosis.

Hemolysins were tested for in the following manner. The serum to be

Blood grouping sera anti A (rabbit) No. 2428-14 and anti B No. 2429-15 kindly supplied by Lederle Laboratories.

<sup>3</sup> Kindly furnished by Sharpe and Dohme Co.

be tested was inactivated at 56° for 30 minutes after which 0.5 ml portions of serial twofold dilutions in 0.85% sodium chloride were added to each of nine tubes. Normal saline was added to the tenth tube which served as a control. One tenth milliliter of fresh normal unheated AB serum (diluted with an equal part of saline) and 0.5 ml of a 3% saline suspension of thrice washed test cells were added to each of the ten tubes which were then shaken. The mixtures were placed in a water bath at 37° for 30 minutes, centrifuged for 1 minute at 1500 rpm and examined for the presence of hemolysis.

To test the potency of the specific polysaccharide blood group A reagent equal volumes of this substance were added to the serial dilutions of anti A blood grouping plasma and incubated for 30 minutes at 25° before the type A test cells were added. The specific polysaccharide reagent was found to inhibit the anti A blood grouping plasma at a titer of 1:8.

## Results

The method for preparing the leukocyte suspension was simple and produced cells which were viable and did not tend to clump spontaneously. The main disadvantage of the technique was that Sequestrene bound the divalent cations and in this way inhibited the action of complement (9).

In all we have performed over 750 tests for leukocyte agglutination on various combinations of normal plasmas and leukocyte suspensions. In general the reproducibility of tests on any one day was good but it was poor in most tests from day to day. This lack of reproducibility on different days made it difficult to differentiate false positives from true agglutination reactions. Usually nonspecific clumping produced a stringy, irregular type of clump. The clump caused by a specific agglutinin was more tightly packed and symmetrical. Occasionally, however, they were difficult to differentiate morphologically. Although each leukocyte suspension was examined for signs of spontaneous clumping, one could not be sure that the cells in an individual test had become injured and were clumped nonspecifically. Because of this rather rigid criteria were adopted and only those tests which were positive on two occasions were defined as positive for leukocyte agglutination.

## Incidence and Distribution

Table I shows the results of tests on the plasma of 24 nonimmunized (i.e. nulliparous not previously transfused) donors against the leukocytes of 8 normal donors. In all 160 combinations were tested.

Of these 160 combinations 81 were compatible with respect to the A B and O blood groups and 76 were incompatible. There were 30 positive tests. In 6 of the 30 tests (20%) the plasma samples and leukocyte donors were compatible with respect to the A B and O red cell

TABLE I

## THE DISTRIBUTION OF NATURAL LEUKOCYTE AGGLUTININS

(The blank spaces denote no test. The 0 denotes a negative test. The + denotes a positive test.)

## CELL DONORS

	TYPE	CELL DONORS						
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
		O+	O+	A+	A+	A+	B+	B+
1	O+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	O+	0	0	0	0	0	0	+
3	O-	0	0	+	+	+	+	0
4	O+	0	0	0	0	0	+	0
5	O+	0	0	0	0	+	0	0
6	O+	0	0	+	0	0	0	0
7	O+	0	0	0	0	+	0	0
8	O+	0	0	+	+	+	+	0
9	O+			+	+	+		
10	O+			+	+	+	+	
11	A+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	A+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	A+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	A+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	A+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	A+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	A+		0	0	0	0	0	0
18	A+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
19	A+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
20	B+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	B+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	B+	0	0	+	+	+	0	0
23	AB+	0	0	0	0	0	+	0
24	AB+	0	0	+	0	0	+	0

PLASMA DONORS

types. In 24 of the 30 positive tests (80%) the combinations were incompatible. The clumps in the compatible reactions were composed entirely of white cells. The clumps in the incompatible reactions were a mixture of red and white cells.

## Erythrophagocytosis

When stained smears were made of the leukocytes used in the test for agglutination, it was noted that erythrophagocytosis was present in some. In the 6 positive tests in which the plasma donors and leukocyte donors were compatible with respect to the A B and O red cell types, none



showed erythrophagocytosis. Of the 24 positive tests which were in compatible 22 (92%) showed a significant erythrophagocytosis. None of the 66 tests which were incompatible with respect to the A, B, and O red cell types but did not show clumping had a significant erythrophagocytosis. Significant erythrophagocytosis was not observed in the absence of agglutination. Figure 1 summarizes these data.

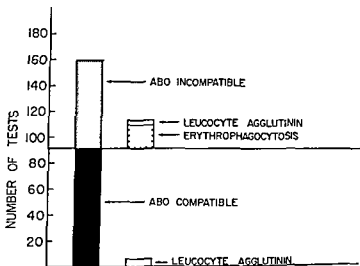


FIG 1 Relationship of the ABO system and leukocyte agglutinins to erythrophagocytosis

### Hemagglutinins

In order to study the role of the anti A agglutinins in the causation of both agglutination and erythrophagocytosis specific polysaccharide of blood group A was added to the test plasma before it was mixed with the leukocytes. In 9 of 15 positive tests in which there was an incompatibility due to anti A this inhibition test was performed. In all those tested both agglutination and erythrophagocytosis were prevented.

### Complement and Hemolysin

Bonnin and Schwartz (2) had previously demonstrated that a hemolysin and complement are required in addition to a hemagglutinin for erythrophagocytosis to occur owing to the presence of an incompatibility for the A, B, and O red cell types.

Complementary action in this system seemed doubtful because of the presence of Sequestrene. It was not possible to test this hypothesis di-

rectly by heat inactivation however as the white cell suspensions were badly damaged by heating to 56° for 30 minutes

The sera of 6 out of 8 type O plasma donors which produced agglutination and erythrophagocytosis were tested for the presence of hemolysins. In only one of those tested was a hemolysin demonstrated

TABLE II  
RELATIONSHIP OF HEMAGGLUTINATION, ERYTHROPHAGOCYTOSIS AND  
LEUKAGGLUTINATION

(EP indicates the number of erythrophagocytes found in counting 500 white blood cells. The numbers in the columns anti A and anti B are the reciprocals of the titers. Otherwise the nomenclature is the same as in Table I.)

		LEUCOCYTE DONORS								
		ANTI A	ANTI B	EP	III A+	IV A+	V A+	VI B+	VII B+	
PLASMA DONORS	8	O+	64	32	269	+	+	+	+	0
	3	O+	256	128	100	+	+	+	+	0
	22	B+	256		112	+	+	+	0	0
	2	O+	256	128	24	0	0	0	+	+
	5	O+	256	128	53	0	0	+	0	0
	6	O+	128	128	21	+	0	0	0	0
	7	O+	64	128	37	0	0	+	0	0
	1	O+	64	64	0	0	0	0	0	0
	12	A+		512	0	0	0	0	0	0
	13	A+		32	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	A+		128	0	0	0	0	0	0	
15	A+		256	0	0	0	0	0	0	
18	A+		64	62	0	0	0	0	0	
20	B+	64		0	0	0	0	0	0	
21	B+	64		0	0	0	0	0	0	

#### Leukocyte Agglutinin

These observations made the usual mechanism for erythrophagocytosis seem unlikely. For a time we entertained the idea that the leukocyte agglutinin which always seemed to be present in conjunction with erythrophagocytosis might be important in the etiology of the latter. To test this the following experiment was designed. Leukocyte suspensions were prepared from blood drawn from the plasma donors. This was incubated with washed incompatible red blood cells. This test contained plasma donors' white cells and plasma in addition to incompatible red cells and the possibility of a leukocyte agglutinin being present was excluded. The results are shown in Table II. There was a fairly good correlation between the ability of a plasma to cause erythrophagocytosis and mixed red and white cell clumps. There is one plasma which causes

erythrophagocytosis but does not cause agglutination. There is no explanation for this. This suggests the possibility that the mixed cell clumps were caused by an extension of the process of erythrophagocytosis. A white cell agglutinin does not appear to cause this mixed cell type of clump.

Cinephotomicrographic studies of the process of the formation of a mixed cell clump lend some support to this contention. When the leukocyte suspension and incompatible red cells are mixed as described above the red cells become spherocytes and clump. Next after about 15 minutes the white cells become sticky and coming in contact with the spherocytes become attached to them. Then the white cells engulf the red cells by surrounding them with pseudopodia. This is a complicated process and may take 15 to 30 minutes. Eventually the red cells are taken into the white cells. Subsequently two erythrophagocytes join. The film strip (Fig 2) shows that this occurs in a specific manner. The chance touching of a white cell pseudopod to the red cell pole of the erythrophagocyte causes sticking of the two. It appears that the red cells are attractive to another erythrophagocyte even though they are inside the white cells.

It is not clear why some plasmas have a stronger tendency to cause erythrophagocytosis than others. This will require further study.

#### Pure White Cell Clumps

On the other hand the clumps which were made up entirely of white cells in the tests involving compatible plasma and white cell donors seemed to be caused by a true agglutinin. The naturally occurring agglutinins were uniformly weak and difficult to reproduce but behaved much like leukocyte agglutinins which we have found in typing sera of rabbit origin.

In 1928 Wichels and Lampe (15) observed that white cells from two patients of blood group A with myeloid leukemia could be agglutinated by anti A agglutinins. These cells also were capable of absorbing the anti A agglutinin. Thomsen (13) in 1930 repeated these experiments with 8 leukemic patients and found only occasional agglutination reactions. He did demonstrate absorption of the corresponding agglutinins by leukocytes. Twible *et al* (14) by the use of combined cross matching and absorption techniques demonstrated the A and B antigens in human leukocytes. The antigen could be shown in only 15% of the population by direct cross matching and required absorption methods for demonstration in the remainder. Dausset (4) using powerful typing serum which also contained a hemolysin and using care to

get a fairly pure white cell suspension was able to demonstrate the A and B antigens in white cells. In addition he showed the lack of agglutination after absorption with A or B red cells or inhibition with Group A and B substances (Witchsky's substance). Likewise Bus (11)

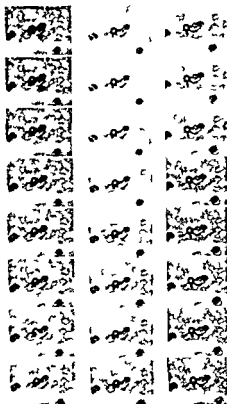


FIG. 2 Film strip showing two erythrophagocytes joining. The first strip shows the brush borders of the leukocytes in contact. In the second strip the brush border of the leukocyte on the right is moving upward toward the red cell pole of the leukocyte on the left. In the third strip it finally makes firm union with the red cell pole of the leukocyte on the left.

more recently has tested white cell suspensions against anti A and anti B sera of human origin. He reported that white cells behaved in the same manner as the corresponding red cells.

When anti A and anti B blood grouping plasmas were substituted for the test plasma in the test for leukocyte agglutinins the results illustrated in Table III were obtained. Both plasmas were effective in cross



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## Added Comment

J L TULLIS

Harvard University Boston Massachusetts

Knowledge of the existence of leukocyte antibodies and leukocyte antigenicity dates back many decades in France to the early work of Bordet and in this country to the work of a distinguished physician who is with us at this Symposium. As an effulgent young house officer at the Boston City Hospital thirty years ago Dr Charles Doan made a study of transfusion reactions within compatible red cell groups and he clearly demonstrated by supravital techniques the presence of potent antileukocyte agglutinins which sometimes agglutinated the white cells of a recipient after transfusion with group specific blood.

More recently (1949-1950) both the investigators with whom Dr Finch has been associated and another group working in Boston enthusiastically entered the field and rediscovered the presence of iso and immune white cell antibodies. When it was realized that these factors had been described previously little extension of that work was made other than to rename the leukocyte antibody *leukotoxin* in deference to Dr Doan's original nomenclature. The subject then was temporarily put aside until about two years ago when our group reopened a study of the characterization and quantitation of leukocytic agglutinins.

Meantime in Europe some very classic and provocative work was in progress. Dr Sven Moeschlin carried out both *in vitro* and *in vivo* experimentation on the antigen antibody relationships of pyrimidine induced agranulocytosis. Utilizing the Harrington type of transfusion experiment he produced severe leukopenia in a normal recipient by the transfusion of serum from a sensitized donor.

At approximately the same time Dr Marcel Bessis clearly delineated by time lapse photomicrography a series of morphologic changes which characterized the degeneration of a leukocyte after exposure to its natural antibody. Dr Bessis in association with Drs Andre and Dreyfus also reported a case of lymphatic leukemia occurring in a person with Hodgkin's disease who had been splenectomized because of leukopenia.

As a result of his study he postulated "La leukopénie et la thrombopénie sont expliquées par la présence d'un anticorps antileucocyte et anti plaquette"

Concerning the work just presented the findings of both Dr. Finch and Dr. Butler have clearly broadened our thinking on the role which leukocyte antibodies may play in both pathologic and so called normal reactions

Time precludes a discussion of the iso antibodies but good evidence has been presented that leukocytes do possess the standard A, B and O blood groups as well as others as Dr. Finch and Dr. Butler have shown

In the area of the immune antibodies the evidence points to a significant role of leukocyte factors in the natural course of lymphomas and leukemias especially the aleukemic variety but as yet no firm proof has been adduced to show any *etiological* role for these antibodies in malignant disease

Work on such a possibility nonetheless goes forward with great enthusiasm and vigor especially by Dr. Max Seligman at the Pasteur Institute Paris. I have not seen a publication of his work but it is my impression that he has been able to demonstrate three distinct antigens in normal leukocytes by employing the agar technique

Our eagerness to interpret such concepts of antileukocyte antibodies as regulatory mechanisms for the numbers of circulating leukocytes should not deter the pursuit of other and perhaps equally important humoral factors however. For example why should the total colligative properties of serum from leukopenic individuals show an inordinate lessening of the freezing point depression when contrasted with non leukopenic controls? And why in a series of twenty eight recent leukopenics from whom we were able to isolate leukocyte agglutinins should the total electrolyte and crystalloid particles of the serum be reduced to an average of 294 miliosmoles compared with a normal of 312 in a corresponding group of leukopenics in whom no leukocyte agglutinins could be isolated? Does this mean that an anti white cell antibody has the ability to bind an excess of salt at the temperature at which water freezes? Certainly it would be surprising if such levels of extracellular hypotonicity actually existed in the intact organism

These questions must await further study. Meanwhile it is safe to conclude that the leukocyte antibodies probably are true antibodies and protein in type

Table I shows that a quantitation of leukotoxin is possible by a simple pipet technique. The average decrease in leukocyte count in an *in vitro*



mixture of normal white cells and normal type specific sera is only 2% at the end of 30 minutes and 4% at the end of 60 minutes

Table II for comparison shows the decrease in count through agglutination and lysis which follows a similar *in vitro* mixture of normal leuko-

TABLE I  
NORMAL SERA IN LEUKOTOXIN TEST

Number of tests	Range at 30 minutes %	Range at 60 minutes %	Average %	
			30 minutes	60 minutes
Negative 52	0-10	0-14	2	4

TABLE 2  
SERA CONTAINING ANTI WHITE CELL BODIES IN LEUKOTOXIN TEST

Number of tests	Range at 30 minutes %	Range at 60 minutes %	Average %	
			30 minutes	60 minutes
28	8-70	12-79	30	40

TABLE III  
SPECIFICITY OF LEUKOCYTE ANTIBODY FACTOR  
(Two positive sera A S and J S)

Serum	0	30 minutes	60 minutes
A S	33 500	30 100 (-10)	28 400 (-15)
J A	20 900	15 300 (-27)	13 600 (-35)
0.25 ml same sera + 0.25 ml concentrated leukocytes 18 hours at 4			
Serum	0	30 minutes	60 minutes
A S	32 400	32 200 (0)	29 900 (-7)
J A	21 300	20 900 (-2)	20,200 (-5)

cytes and abnormal sera. In this series of 28 positive sera there was an average decrease of 30% at the end of 30 minutes incubation and 40% at the end of 60 minutes.

Table III shows the specificity of the reaction wherein it is possible to adsorb the antileukocyte activity by exposure to an excess of leukocytes and thus reverse previously positive tests to negative tests.

Finally is the antileukocyte factor truly a protein and if so what kind of protein is it? Figure 1 shows the location of the antileukocyte activity in paper strip electrophoretic analysis of abnormal sera. In this figure the paper strip is represented schematically on the abscissa and the antibody activity of the different protein fractions eluted from various segments of the strip is plotted on the ordinate. It may be seen that the

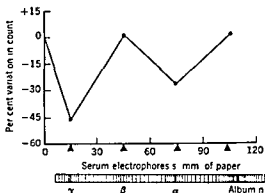


FIG. 1. Electrophoretic location of antileukocyte activity

major concentration of antileukocyte activity is in the portion of the electrophoresis corresponding to the gamma globulin moiety with no activity in the albumin or beta globulins. Why a moderate amount of antileukocyte activity was found in the alpha range is unknown.

In summary on the basis of the work presented today plus supporting investigations from both the present and the past a few conclusions may be presented:

1. Leukocyte antibodies are factors of clinical importance.
2. They play an important role in the natural history of an occasional case of lymphoma and in occasional case of aleukemic leukemia.
3. These factors apparently are proteins with characteristics similar to other gamma globulins.

## General Discussion

DR THEODORE S HALSCHKA (Buffalo New York) I should like to point out a refinement in technique applicable to the study of iso-antigens of leukocytes Using inbred strains of mice Amos [*Brit J Exptl Pathol* 34 464 (1953)] was able to produce antibodies directed against specific gene controlled histocompatibility factors Titers up to 1 in 512 are common and titers up to 1 in 2000 have been reached The technique has been used to demonstrate circulating antibodies present after skin grafting between mice of different strains [*Brit J Exptl Pathol* 35 203 (1954)]

DR JACOB FURTH (Boston Massachusetts) Dr Tullis mentioned the presence of antileukocyte antibodies in the lymphomas Would you like to elaborate on that? Does that have anything to do with the etiology of the disease or is it one of the manifestations of the disease or complications such as occur in agranulocytosis? Is there any specificity in those antibodies in their action between normal lymphocytes or malignant lymphocytes?

DR J L TULLIS I do not believe there is any relationship etiologically between the genesis of Hodgkin's disease or lymphoma and the presence of auto-antibodies Out of our group of twenty eight patients with leukocyte agglutinins reported there were three cases in which the underlying abnormality was Hodgkin's disease All three were suffering from leukopenia with a presumptive diagnosis of hypersplenism secondary to activity in the spleen The remainder of the group of twenty eight were predominantly made up of persons with so-called primary hypersplenism

I was interested in hearing that aminopyridine is the most common agent in Dr Moeschlin's entire group Most of our leukocyte agglutinins were from people with cirrhosis of the liver or portal vein thrombosis

DR RUGER ROSSITER (London Ontario Canada) I should like to make a few remarks on Dr Finch's most excellent paper on the production of antisera with different fractions of leukocytes from exudates of the guinea pig

We have fractionated exudate cells on a number of occasions not from the guinea pig but from the rabbit by the usual process of differential centrifugation in sucrose and our experience with the various fractions has been quite disappointing We find that when we do chemical determinations on the various fractions at least 60% of the leukocyte RNA is in our nuclear fraction

On examining this nuclear fraction we find that probably the reason for this is that in the multilobed nucleus of polymorphs one has very large chunks of cytoplasm complete with mitochondria included in the nuclear fragment For this reason I don't think it is surprising that Dr Finch finds that with antisera from his nuclear fractions he does obtain quite marked activity Most of his activity certainly is in the cytoplasmic fractions but there is some in the nuclear fraction

We are quite puzzled and should very much like to develop good techniques for obtaining nuclei from the polymorphonuclear cells I certainly should like to talk with Dr Finch about this and with anyone else who has had experience with differential centrifugation of polymorphs

DR S C FINCH We have had no experience studying the nuclear protein content of these fractions but by morphologic observation it is true that one always certainly has considerable amounts of cytoplasmic fragments attached to the nuclei We have felt that possibly this may have been responsible for some of the anti

leukocytic activity that we have had with nuclear antisera. I think we can be reasonably sure however that our cytoplasmic fractions contained very few nuclei.

I should like to mention one other set of essentially negative experiments which we have completed. These were attempts to produce autoleukocyte antibody by isoimmune mechanisms. In this study we took a number of guinea pigs, made peritoneal exudates, removed the spleens and bone marrow, mixed each of them with Freund's adjuvant and administered them separately to normal guinea pigs subcutaneously and intraperitoneally. We used both nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions and did complement fixation studies to try to detect the presence of any leukocyte antibody in the normal recipients as well as multiple peripheral blood counts. I do not think we obtained any consistent findings in terms of either depression of white cells or evidence of complement fixation. In other words we were completely unsuccessful with the possible exception of perhaps some slight activity with the cytoplasmic fraction of the granulocytes.

DR ALBERT S. GORDON (New York, New York). I should like to direct a question to Dr. Finch.

First of all, do these agglutinins act peripherally on the circulating leukocytes?

In view of Dr. Craddock's work showing the rapid regenerative capacity of the leukocytes after leukopheresis, is there any possibility that these agglutinins act on stem cells within the marrow?

If the action is peripheral, what happens to these leukocytes that are agglutinated?

DR S. C. FINCH. Those are some very embarrassing questions to which I do not have the answer. I think we can say at the present time only that the white cells disappear. Other studies done by Dr. John Lawrence a number of years ago and by Dr. Cajano more recently have demonstrated that there is an early depression or depletion of the bone marrow elements and later there is a very active and rapid regeneration. These studies suggested that the transient depression of bone marrow elements more or less corresponded to the period of peripheral leukopenia.

We do not know where these white cells go. We assume they are badly damaged and rapidly removed from the circulation but we do not know whether or not they are sequestered and whether or not they enter the circulation again later.

DR WOLF W. ZIEGLER (Detroit, Michigan). I should like to ask Dr. Butler a question.

In ruling out the effect of anti A or anti B, do you consider the neutralization of the A or B by specific soluble substance effective? I wonder if you have taken into account the possibility of immune antibodies against A or B because they are not readily neutralized by A or B substances.

DR J. J. BUTLER. I think that is a possibility although we ran controls on these with red cells and there was no effect of the neutralized anti A on the red cell control.



**Part II**

**Genetic and Environmental Factors  
in the Transmission of Leukemia**

**Chairman**

**Howard R. Bierman**

**City of Hope Medical Center**

**Duarte, California**



## 5

# The Pathophysiology and Immunogenetics of Transplantable Leukemia

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Recent advances in the biology of experimental leukemia have broadened the basic knowledge prerequisite to an effective clinical approach. Activity in the field may be inferred from the large number of reviews since 1950 dealing with chemotherapy, histopathology, hormonal aspects and etiology (25, 27-30, 38, 39, 53, 83, 85, 88, 102, 105, 139, 141). Because the complex variables inherent in the general laboratory use of grafted tumors are often poorly understood and the observations interpreted incorrectly, the present survey is focused on the pathophysiology and immunogenetics of the transplantable leukoses.

Leukemia represents a heterogeneous group of growth disorders resulting either from changes in the cells' ability to respond to host forces which normally regulate growth and maturation or from a derangement of these forces. The significance of chemotherapeutic "cure" in rodents has been exaggerated; it should be remembered that leukemic grafts and the animals bearing them are not exact analogs of either the growths or the hosts in spontaneous disease.

Factors in the etiology of leukemia to which transplantation studies have contributed include especially antigenic mutations and transmission attempts by filterable agents or cell fragments. In the tempting but unreliable extrapolation of data from transplantable leukemias to causative factors, four independent categories of gene action should be appreciated: the heritable influence in "spontaneous" leukemias; the genes promoting susceptibility to chemical and physical carcinogens; the mutational steps of "progression" in established tumors; and finally the immunogenetic aspects of "take."



The latter two are significant sources of variation in graft behavior. If primary genetic differences exist between neoplastic and corresponding normal cells they are too remote and too confused by subsequent cellular changes to be divulged through analysis of serially transferred tissue. For example, the pathophysiology of a transplanted granulocytic leukemia or of an ascites lymphoma affords no clues to the original anomalies which led to their induction.

Preoccupation with pathologic and genetic features of advanced neoplasia has perhaps distracted investigators from the potentially rewarding search for ephemeral impairment of white cell "homeostasis" and for possible dependent precursors of autonomous leukemias (41).

### Pathophysiology

#### TRANSPLANTABLE TUMORS OF THE HEMOPOIETIC SYSTEM

The first well studied transplantable leukemia was described by Snijders in the guinea pig (31). After many earlier attempts to transmit rodent leukoses in heterogeneous animals Korteweg (99) carried an induced mouse lymphosarcoma through 17 consecutive transfers obtaining up to 44<sup>th</sup> takes. Since then most types of leukemia have been established in serial passage.

There are close analogies between these growths and the corresponding lesions in man (30, 31). Lymphocytic, granulocytic, monocytic, mast cell, and plasma cell leukemias, as well as reticulum cell neoplasms resembling Hodgkin's disease, are listed in the comprehensive catalog of Dunham and Stewart (28). It is doubtful, however, if the precise equivalents of small cell lymphoid leukemia, chronic granulocytic leukemia, acute leukemia of childhood, Hodgkin's, and multiple myeloma of man have been reproduced in animals.

Besides the thirty-eight mouse tumors listed by Dunham and Stewart, eleven transfer lines in the rat and one guinea pig lymphoma are described. Rodent leukemias have a much greater diversity than those of the domestic fowl, which occur in a few monotonously uniform kinds and are transmissible with cell-free agents. Most leukemias of the lower mammals are of the acute lymphocytic type; the frequency of granulocytic and other forms roughly parallels the normal differential white cell count (Table I).

Experimental leukoses can be grown as systemic tumors by intravenous transfers. Intramuscular injection of the same cells usually produces solid tumors which can be carried as such. Since the various neoplasms of the hemopoietic system have responded well to experimental conversion into the ascitic form—i.e., they can grow as cell suspensions

in peritoneal exudate (49 50 90 91)—ascites tumors have considerable advantages over their solid counterparts for quantitative studies on the growth spread cytology and biochemistry of malignant tissue

TABLE I

AVERAGE NUMBERS OF THE DIFFERENT LEUKOCYTES PER 100 WHITE CELLS AND  
FREQUENCY OF CORRESPONDING LEUKEMIAS

Cell type	Mouse	Rat	Man
Neutrophils	21	5	70
Eosinophils	3	2	2
Basophils	Rare	Rare	Rare
Lymphocytes	68	67	24
Monocytes	6	5	3
<i>Leukemia frequency</i>			
Myeloid	~15%	~17%	~45%
Lymphatic	~70%	~70%	~37%
Monocytic	?	?	~ 0%

\* The differential counts are based on the monograph of Gardner (45) the leukemia frequencies in man are statistically analyzed in two recent papers by Gilliam (49) and Hewitt (77)

Table II lists twenty three ascites leukemias useful for cytologic and cell population analysis

#### TRANSPLANTABILITY

On the whole lymphocytic leukemias are rigid in their host requirements and can be grafted only to animals of the inbred strain in which they originated. Host survival time is reduced during successive serial passages until it reaches a constant low level. Individual transfer lines often have characteristic distinguishing features the same applies to granulocytic leukemias except for somewhat lesser virulence. Transplantable reticulum cell sarcomas described in several strains of mice and rats represent a heterogeneous group. One extreme is related to monocytes (macrophages) the detached circulating member of the reticuloendothelial system the other extreme is the fixed reticuloendothelial cell. The former can be considered as an aleukemic form of monocytic leukemia. Some of these produce on transplantation pleocellular tumors resembling Hodgkins disease. The latter cannot always be distinguished with certainty from granulomatous lesions. Dunn (30) who studied reticulum cell neoplasms recently describes three morphologic types. The neoplastic character of type C is very doubtful types A and B are slow growing and transplantation of B rarely succeeds even

TABLE II  
TRANSPLANTABLE LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS GROWING AS ASCITES TUMORS

Tumor	Host strain	Origin	Ascitic transfer generation	Usual color of ascitic fluid	Modal ploidy	AR and AD lines available	Established in the ascites form by
6C3HED lymphosarcoma	C3H/St	Chem	243 (R)	B	s	No	Klein 1951 (90)
6C3HED adapted to DBA/2	C3H/St	Chem	9 (R)	W	2s	No	Hauschka <i>et al.</i> 1956 (75)
DBA/2 lymphoma (thymus)	DBA/2	Spont	221 (R)	W P	s	No	Klein 1951 (90)
PLS lymphosarcoma	AKM	—	—	—	—	No	Klein 1951 (90)
A#1 lymphoma	A/He	\ ray	152 (R)	W P	2s	No	Shelton 1954 (151)
A#2 lymphoma	A/He	\ ray	186 (R)	B	s	No	Shelton 1954 (151)
E L 4 lymphoblastic leukemia	C57BL	Chem	~200	W	—	No	Gorer 1950 (58)
AK4 leukemia	AK	Spont	—	—	—	No	Goldie 1956 (49)
P1534 lymphatic leukemia	DBA/2	Spont	—	—	—	No	Goldie 1956 (49)
C1498 granulocytic leukemia	C57BL/6	Spont	—	—	—	No	Goldie 1956 (49)
DL1 lymphoma	DBA/2Ha	Spont	9 (R)	P W	s	No	Amos (unpublished)
E L 24 lymphatic leukemia	C57BL	Chem	4 (R)	W	s 2s	No	Boek (unpublished)
KL1 lymphoma	C58	Spont	10 (R)	P	—	No	Amos (unpublished)
L1210 lymphocytic leukemia	DBA/2	Chem	73 (N)	B	—	Yes	Law and Potter (unpublished)
L4946 lymphoma (thymus)	AKR	Spont	85 (N)	W	—	Yes	Law and Potter (unpublished)
L5178 lymphocytic leukemia	DBA/2	Chem	38 (N)	P	—	Yes	Law and Potter (unpublished)
P288 lymph node leukemia	DBA/2	Chem	50 (N)	B	2s	No	Law and Potter (unpublished)
P335 lymphocytic leukemia	DBA/2	Chem	42 (N)	B	—	No	Law and Potter (unpublished)
P433 lymphoma (thymus)	DBA/2	\ ray	21 (N)	B	—	No	Law and Potter (unpublished)
P258 reticulum cell type A	DBA/2	Chem	18 (N)	P	—	No	Law and Potter (unpublished)
H5530 granulocytic leukemia	C58	Spont	11 (N)	B	—	No	Law and Potter (unpublished)
70429 plasma cell leukemia	C3H/He	Chem	28 (N)	W	—	Yes	Law and Potter (unpublished)
Murphy lymphosarcoma	Wistar rat	Chem	45 (R)	W P	—	No	Day <i>et al.</i> (unpublished)

Symbols: Chem = chemically induced; B = bloody; P = slightly bloody; W = blood free; s = near diploid; 2s = near tetraploid; AR and AD = antineoplastic resistant or dependent lines. The ascitic transfer generations are current serial passages at the Roswell Park Memorial Institute, Buffalo (R) or at the National Cancer Institute, Bethesda (N).

in the inbred strain of origin. Type A also may regress. It appears therefore that some of these could be dependent neoplasms or if autonomous they are not fully compatible with the hosts on which they were grafted. Some may not be neoplasms at all.

The highly specific histocompatibility of mouse leukemias is exemplified by uniform "take" of tumor C1498 in all mice of the C57BL/6 line and equally regular regression in an isogenic subline which arose by mutation of a single H factor (18-19). Even in the immunologically neutral anterior eye chambers lymphoma homografts (i.e. interstrain grafts as distinguished from isografts within the strain of origin) grew poorly and heterografts not at all (119). Primary grafts often have a very long (up to one year) and variable latent period. Transplantation sites and other host factors may influence the percentage and character of takes. In our experience uniformity begins after about the second subpassage.

#### GROWTH

Diffuse leukemias would appear quite unsuitable for exact growth measurements. The increment of certain ascites tumors has been plotted however by Revesz and Klein (144) who used quantitative rinsing and dye dilution procedures. Three lymphomas of different anatomic and genetic origin showed increments of similar order. Cell number in the peritoneal cavity increased exponentially during the most active growth phase and attained a maximum of about 2 billion per mouse. The accumulation of exudate was not directly proportional to cell number. Cell concentration per unit volume of fluid reached its peak earlier than total number in the peritoneal cavity and decreased progressively during later stages of growth as did the volume of individual cells.

Doubling rate i.e. cell generation time for a given inoculum of the E.L.1 DBA/2 and 6C3HED lymphomas varied between 5 and 10 hours and seemed correlated with mean cell volume. This suggestive relationship between cell size and doubling time depends on limitations by the host as apparent from the growth behavior of a near diploid ascites carcinoma and its tetraploid subline (71). The cells of the latter have twice the diploid volume but multiply at the diploid rate during the early logarithmic phase until the total cell mass—drawing on the host's nutritional and other resources—becomes the limiting factor. The end mass attained and survival time were the same for both tumors: the mice succumbed after supporting the synthesis of about 2 billion diploid cells or 1 billion tetraploid cells.

Exact growth measurements for ascites lymphomas are handicapped

by two principal sources of error. Infiltration of viscera by the malignant lymphocytes begins early and morphologic distinction between the malignant and some inflammatory cells by the criteria of exfoliative cytology is difficult (95). Fortunately, most ascitic lymphomas are fairly pure cultures of the inoculated cell type. The admixture of normal host exudate cells amounts to about 5% (93). Existing information on the free cells of normal peritoneal fluid and on their response to various stimuli (32, 144) allows realistic corrections in cases of uncertain morphology.

The cytologic analysis by Felix and Dalton (32) of native cells in peritoneal fluid confirms and extends earlier observations. Cellular response to injection of 0.85% NaCl, melanin granules, or carbon particles followed the same general sequence. An immediate rise in neutrophilic granulocytes was succeeded by a slow, continuous numerical increase of macrophages, whereas lymphocytes decreased initially and then became more numerous. Activity of macrophages was at times accompanied by a considerable amount of mitosis (up to 1%). Transformation of lymphocytes to macrophages was claimed but should be documented by time lapse cinematography. The above findings describe the reaction to intra-peritoneal stimuli. The situation is more complex in the ascites leukemias where hemopoietic organs are infiltrated by the tumor cells; here the character of the exudate depends both on the material in the peritoneum and its inroads on hemopoietic structures of the host.

The ascites lymphoma growth determinations (144) serve as useful models for the course of acute autonomous disease. They furnish a norm for judging experimental growth inhibition by antimetabolites, antibody, or irradiation, and provide physiologically more revealing reference data than would tumor weight, host weight, or survival time.

## VIRULENCE

The term virulence designates the rapidity of evolution and fatality of the leukemic process. In the immunogenetic literature, virulent has been used synonymously with "nonspecific" to denote increased host range, because genetic indifference is among the progressive changes observed during prolonged serial transfer (78, 153). However, extremely virulent neoplasms with long transplantation histories may retain rigid isoantigenic specificity for ten or more years (e.g., the diploid Gardner lymphosarcoma 6C3HED).

The cause of fatality is complex in all malignant neoplasms. One may point to cachexia, anemia, hemorrhage, infection, or infiltration of vital organs as lethal factors.

Leukemic mice are seldom cachectic, although the leukemic cells may

function as "metabolic traps" of nitrogen and lipids. Infection is rare in mouse leukemia. Anemia and hemorrhage are common in some strains but are seldom the immediate lethal factors. Thymic tumors are often associated with hemorrhagic pleurocardial effusion causing compression of the lungs. Grafted leukemias even of thymic origin do not cause such massive thymic involvement. Death of rodents bearing transplanted leukemia may result most frequently from the invasion of vital organs by neoplastic leukocytes.

Virulence can be altered experimentally by temporary serial transfer through incompatible animals (72). The induced decline in growth potency can manifest itself as a decreased take percentage in the normally 100% susceptible home strain and has been interpreted by Mitchison as a "function of length of residence in the foreign strain" (130-131). Hocker and associates (80) have described reduction of takes for several transplantable mouse leukemias after a side passage of only 7 days. The period of growth in refractory hosts necessary to damage 6C3HED lymphosarcoma irreversibly is about 10 days (131). When the same tumor was transferred every week through 84 consecutive passages in the resistant Swiss mice it survived for 20 months but it died out shortly after the transfer period was increased to 10 days (75).

Useful data on virulence have accumulated for the Gardner lymphosarcoma. The observations cover over 200 weekly passages in the susceptible C3H strain of origin followed by three years of continuous passage in refractory Swiss and DBA/2 mice and terminated with 9 serial passages after return to the C3H home strain. The survival times of over 1000 mice corresponding to the above transplantation history were  $114 \pm 0.1$  days for C3H mice bearing the virulent tumor and  $79.2 \pm 3.8$  days for C3H mice inoculated with the subline attenuated by passage through Swiss. When the latter tumor was maintained in C3H for 9 consecutive transfers survival time gradually dropped from 79 to about 20 days (67-75 and unpublished data of Hauschka *et al.*). During the prolonged sojourn in the C3H home strain the nuclear morphology of the lymphosarcoma shifted spontaneously from spherical to lobated (113). After transfer to the foreign strains the formerly always hemorrhagic exudate became practically colorless and invasion of the viscera was not evident. Invasiveness and hemorrhage need not be related however. Leukocytes do move in and out of vessels. Ability to stimulate capillary formation or interference with factors of hemostasis may be influential.

The least virulent yet about 90% lethal transplantable tumor on record is a DBA adapted tetraploid subline of the 6C3HED lymphosarcoma

(75 and unpublished observations) which requires an average 72 months (range 3 to 16 months) to kill its hosts. DBA/2 mice inoculated with this ascites tumor develop enormous ascites (average 236 ml) without serious debility. Metastasis is infrequent. The exudate abounds in viable lymphoma cells; a stable mitotic index of about 1% is compensated for by an efficient balance between tumor growth and cell death.

#### INVASIVENESS

Malignant white cells like normal leukocytes are migratory but they are more invasive. Their aggressive infiltrations show histologic preferences characteristic of the transplantable strain.

Although injections of cell free plasma from leukemic rodents have given negative results in normal animals, cellular portions of the blood reproduce the disease (42, 43, 134). The amount of blood required to transmit the Lewis rat lymphoma #8 only 1 day after subcutaneous implantation is exceedingly small. Lewis carried this tumor through 12 serial passages by means of whole blood (116).

The invasiveness of mouse ascites lymphomas (6C3HED A#2 DBA/2 E L 4) begins during the first day of intraperitoneal growth (144). On the fifth day they are invariably transmissible with 0.1 ml of peripheral blood diluted 1:200 taken from the tail tip or from the retro-orbital sinus (75 and Kaziwara unpublished observations). Granulocytic mouse leukemia C1498 provoked an accumulation of serous exudate after intraperitoneal inoculation whence it rapidly invaded blood and hemopoietic organs (51). The hemograms in the ascites and in peripheral blood were parallel (52).

Observations of Furth and his associates linking lymphosarcoma with leukemia are confirmed by the effect of implantation site on the disease pattern of the Murphy lymphosarcoma in Wistar rats. When the tumor was transferred intraperitoneally, blood lymph nodes and thymus were involved. Localized lymphosarcoma extending only as far as the regional lymph nodes developed after subcutaneous grafting (134). A similar role of inoculation site as a factor in metastatic behavior was found by Goldie *et al.* (52).

The invasive character of a lymphoma can change spontaneously and can also be altered experimentally. Mouse tumor 6C3HED, estrogen induced by Gardner *et al.* in 1941, was not metastatic during its first 25 transplant generations despite its rapid growth (46). Later its metastatic capacity became pronounced and is now a permanent feature of its diploid main line—yet very rare in a tetraploid subline derived by immunoselection in refractory hosts (75).

A concomitant change in number of mitochondria and increased invasiveness in a lymphoid leukemia during serial transfer suggest that metastatic cells differ genetically from the less autonomous elements in the primary growth (127). The pattern of leukemic spread in hybrid mice is less uniform than in animals of pure strain (82). Furth and his collaborators had shown earlier that the spread of neoplastic white cells is retarded by immunogenetic resistance. AK leukemias take only in a small percentage of RF mice where tumors form at the site of intra-muscular injection whereas in AKs they spread freely and produce the generalized disease. Preirradiation of the hosts facilitates dissemination.

Among the most intriguing aspects of leukemic spread are the preferential tissue affinities which distinguish certain morphologically similar transfer lines from each other (30). For example one of five cell strains studied by Furth *et al.* (43) had a specific ovarian tropism, enlargement of the ovaries being in some cases the only sign of "take." Strain RG10 produced growths in the kidneys whereas line S27 invaded the muscles by preference. These muscular infiltrations were sometimes massive, spread about the spinal cord and penetrated nerves and ganglia with consequent paralysis of the hind legs. Three of five strains studied never produced pleural and peritoneal effusions but S27 evoked a hemorrhagic and Ar a milky white ascites. Pulmonary involvement, invasion of pancreas, enlargement or pericapsular infiltration of the lymph nodes and perivascular or diffuse invasion of the liver varied sufficiently from one lymphoma strain to another to be almost diagnostic. These histopathologic findings certainly indicate the importance of "soil" as a factor accessory to passive mechanical cell distribution in tumor spread (166). The nature of these affinities (antigenic, humoral or other?) is unknown and offers fertile opportunities for future research.

It is thus apparent that metastatic behavior of neoplastic grafts depends on a multiplicity of factors including host genotype, antigenicity and chromosome constitution of the tumor cells, cell size and motility, tissue preferences and inoculation dose or site.

#### DEPENDENCE ON HOST FACTORS

Early attempts to characterize leukemias as true neoplasms such as the successful transplantation of single leukemic cells (44) focused interest on autonomy. Practically all the transplantable mammalian leukemias overwhelm their hosts through unrestrained exponential proliferation. It is a challenging thought that "benign" conditioned hemoblastosis might precede the malignant emancipation from control by the host. A systematic search for dependent mouse leukemias—aided by growing in



formation on life span and maturation stages of normal and malignant leukocytes (139)—may yield valuable research material. This expectation is warranted by two examples. (1) AK spontaneous leukemias were generally transplantable within the AK stock, but several chronic myeloid leukemias arising in RF mice could not be serially propagated in the inbred strain of origin (41). (2) The tetraploid subline of the 6C3HED ascites lymphoma referred to above kills female DBA/2 mice but regresses in males. After several males had apparently recovered from the tumor, they were injected with estradiolbenzoate (the same hormone with which Gardner had induced the 6C3HED lymphosarcoma fifteen years earlier). The ascites promptly reappeared and killed them. The original diploid tumor growing in C3H mice is much too virulent to reveal a subtle hormonal dependence, but the tetraploid variant wages a seesaw battle with its DBA hosts, lasting up to 16 months and behaves like a conditioned neoplasm (Hauschka and Grinnell, unpublished observations). The observations of Dunn (30) on nontransplantable reticulum cell sarcomas may also be cited in this connection.

*As for the nature of leukopoietic regulators, nothing definite is known.* The existence of a feedback type of regulation can be postulated. This may resemble the highly specific dependence of grafted thyroid cells on the presence of thyrotropic hormone. Some hormonal regulators may be less specific, e.g., the degree of somatotrophic influence from the pituitary. Still others could be nutritional, as shown by growth inhibition of lymphosarcoma grafts in pyridoxine- and riboflavin-deficient mice (159, 160).

The hypothesis that the crucial change in leukemia resides in the host's impaired filtration and destruction mechanisms (14) was not strengthened by the filtration experiments of Ambrus and associates (2). In the latter work, isolated lungs of C57BL/6 and DBA/2 mice carrying transplanted leukemias C1498 or P1534 were as efficient in leukocyte removal as control lungs. Conversely, leukemic and nonleukemic leukocytes were removed by the lungs of normal mice at identical rate and were later released from the heart-lung preparations when white cell-free blood was introduced. Additional evidence is needed, however, for the filtering capacity of lungs from mice with spontaneous leukemia. Such experiments now in progress have not revealed any significant difference (C. M. Ambrus, personal communication).

In a speculative discussion Weiss (165) has presented clues to the self-limiting character of growth. His own work and the cited observations of Danchakoff, Willier, and Ebert indicate that "compounds produced by a given cell type have some selective effect on the same cell

type and that this homologous effect is instrumental in the regulation of growth." For example extra embryonic insertions of spleen grafts or minute liver fragments produced corresponding enlargement of spleen and liver in chick embryos (165)

Is the total mass of the normal leukocyte population similarly regulated by white cell growth products or through more indirect humoral control according to the "needs of the host"? Granulocyte secretions have been described and filmed by Richter (145) host response to these and less obvious secretory products is a possibility

A vast body of data supports the influence of endocrine factors on the production tissue distribution and disposal of white blood elements (53). Estrogens and the pituitary-adrenal axis are among the most potent stimuli (39-40). It has been emphasized by Kaplan (85) and others (13) that in mice the thymus is the fulcrum through the stimulation or involution of which most hormones exert their enhancing or retarding power on leukemogenesis. Changes in the differential leukocyte count in female mice have been correlated with the estrus cycle (10). A striking sex difference in the total weight of organoid lymphoid tissue (9) and greater susceptibility of female mice to lymphatic leukemia (120) are on record. This relationship is not uniformly true however. In the RF strain thymectomy prevents lymphoma induction by x-rays but not induction of myeloid leukemia the incidence of which is increased the latter because thymectomy prevents death of many mice from thymic lymphomas (Upton and Furth to be published). In LAF<sub>1</sub> mice the leukemia induction rate is greatly enhanced in females by ovariectomy (Buffett and Furth to be published).

Endocrine responses are not limited to normal hemopoiesis and initiation of leukemia (46) but are exhibited by transplantable autonomous lymphomas as well. Although adrenalectomy increased susceptibility to rat lymphosarcoma grafts (161) the same operation inhibited the development of transplanted lymphatic leukemia in mice (Silberberg, *et al* is quoted by Kaplan 85). Chromosome size in mouse leukemic cells was altered by sex hormones (16). A sex discrepancy (takes in females were twice those in males) in the acceptance of DBA/2 thymic lymphoma grafts by test hybrids could not be altered by castration (68-76).

All gradations may conceivably exist between leukemia with fully host dependent cells and leukemia with autonomous cells. Although the usual course of events during serial transplantation leads toward emancipation from growth-restraining influences, changes in experimental leukemia need not always be progressive shifts toward increased malignancy. Decreases in virulence (75) increases in antigenicity (68) and sus

pected reversion to hormonal dependence (Hauschka and Grinnell unpublished observations) have recently been induced in mouse lymphomas by incompatible passage immunoselection and other experimental means. The mechanism involved here is probably selection of mutant cell types responsive to temporarily altered factors in foreign host genotypes and is thus similar to the selection of antimetabolite dependent mutants in Law's experiments (102-104-106).

## Immunogenetics and Related Cytology

### HISTOCOMPATIBILITY

Serial transplantation of leukemias tends to create a fluctuating genetic gap between graft and host strain. An appreciation of this variable should moderate the assessment of chemotherapeutic and other results often obtained under conditions of imperfect compatibility. Dependence of histocompatibility on the presence in the host genotype of certain dominant hereditary factors in graft and host was first postulated by Little 42 years ago. Methods for the analysis of immunogenetic differences have been consolidated through the transplantation experiments of Strong and Bittner, the serological work of Gorer and Snell's elaborations of allelism and linkage. Law's enlightening review (105) traces this classical chapter of mammalian genetics from its beginnings to its latter day complexities. There can be no doubt that the gene controlled isoantigenicity of the cell surface plays a decisive role in the fate of both normal and malignant homografts including leukemic transplants.

If a tumor graft carries one or more dominant loci functioning in the elaboration of antigens and the recipient has immunologically different alleles of these factors, the implant evokes antibodies and usually regresses. The most fully analyzed and "strongest" locus among several histocompatibility factors is H-2, represented by at least ten phenotypes in various inbred mouse strains (153-155).

Recent refinements in the genetic localization of the antigens controlling tumor transplantation include evidence for autosomal linkage (60-105-155), mapping of H-2 on the ninth chromosome (1), crossing over—i.e. pseudo allelism—within the apparently composite H-2 "locus" (1-6), X and Y linkage (results of Strong, Bittner, Eichwald and own results discussed by Hauschka, 70-76). The detailed characterization of specific H factors and corresponding antigens has become possible through the combined use of linked marker genes, isogenic resistant mouse strains (153) and isoagglutinating test sera produced in the latter (see below).

Hereditary aspects of leukemia compatibility were first analyzed for

leukemia line I by MacDowell and Richter who reported a one gene difference between the C58 strain of origin and resistant STOL mice (123). Their data are based on the conventional backcross test in which the Mendelian percentages of tumor deaths reveal the underlying genetic segregation. The analysis was carried one crucial step further into a "second backcross" generation which essentially confirmed the one gene difference and at the same time hinted at the participation of minor as yet unidentified factors.

Pursuing their discovery that certain C57BL/10 individuals were in compatible for granulocytic leukemia C1498 which originated in this strain and which had in the past been uniformly lethal for over 200 serial passages, Borges and Avedar (18) discovered an H mutation in the mouse. This was identified as a change from H 2b to H 2d (19, 154). Progressive growth and regressions of leukemia C1498 in resistant backcross and F<sub>2</sub> hybrids were in excellent agreement with a one gene difference between the original line and its isogenic resistant offshoot now called C57BL/10- $\lambda$ .

The quantitative merits of ascites lymphomas in transplantation genetics are clear from recent work in several laboratories (5, 7, 8, 59, 67, 75, 92). The transplantation behavior of the ascites lymphomas propagated by serial transfer of intraperitoneal cell suspensions is stable over long periods. Stroma necrosis and infection—important variables in solid tumor grafts—are less apt to complicate ascites growth. The agreement between Mendelian expectation and actual lethal "takes" is usually very close as is evident from tests with four ascites lymphomas summarized in Table III.

The DBA/2 lymphoma gave an interesting *site specific* result (Table III, lines 1 and 2). Four or five H factors were needed for progressive subcutaneous growth in backcross mice whereas intraperitoneal growth required only two genes. This raises the question whether antigenicity could be affected by tissue specific differences between the grafted tumor and host stroma or other cells in close physical contact with the implant.

Subcutaneous regressions have also been observed for the 6C3HED lymphosarcoma in susceptible C3H mice (146). In unpublished experiments of Amos, after subcutaneous implants of 6C3HED ascites had regressed in C3H/St mice, these animals should have been immune to intraperitoneal challenge given 1 to 3 months later, but they were unexpectedly susceptible. On the other hand, occasional subcutaneous regressions of the L#2 lymphoma ascites (A/He origin) in the related A/St strain conferred the usual immunity to subsequent intraperitoneal

TABLE III  
HISTOCOMPATIBILITY TESTS WITH FOUR ASCITES LYMPHOMAS OF THE MOUSE IN RESISTANT BACKCROSS (RBC)  
AND F<sub>1</sub> HYBRIDS

Ascites lymphoma	Strain of origin	Test hybrid	Total mice inoculated	Per cent lethal takes	Per cent expectations	H factors required for take
DBA/2 lymphoma	DBA/2	(DBA/2 × C3H) RBC	200 1p	23	25	2
		(DBA/2 × C3H) F	114 sc	5	6	4 <sup>p</sup>
		(DBA/2 × C3H) F	207 1p	55	56	2
6C3HED lymphosarcoma	C3H/St	(C3H × DBA/2) RBC	331 1p	53	50	1
		(C3H × DBA/2) RBC	328 sc	41	50	1 <sup>p</sup>
Lymphoma #1	A/He	(C3H × A) RBC	76 1p	58	50	1
		(C3H × A) F	76 sc	53	50	1
		(C3H × A) F	70 1p	81	75	1
		(C3H × A) F	77 sc	73	75	1
Lymphoma #2	A/He	(C3H × A) RBC	128 1p	50	50	1
		(C3H × A) F	126 sc	46	50	1
		(C3H × A) F	79 1p	79	75	1
		(C3H × A) F	80 sc	77	75	1

Summarized from data of Hauschka (68) Hauschka *et al.* (75) and Hauschka and Grinnell (unpublished observations)

challenge. The distinct reactivity of the subcutaneous site compared to intraperitoneal response is not a general phenomenon however as may be seen from data in lines 6 to 13 Table III (Hauschka unpublished observations).

The histocompatibility of the DBA/2 lymphoma was also subject to a probably  $\chi$  linked influence which first became apparent by a diminished number of takes among the backcross males. Since castration did not correct this deficiency  $\chi$  linkage was investigated. The frequency of takes was found to depend on the presence ( $F_1^{\sigma} \times C3H^{\sigma} = BC$  type 1) or absence ( $C3H^{\sigma} \times F_1^{\sigma} = BC$  type 2) of one  $\chi$  chromosome from the susceptible DBA/2 grandparent in the two classes of reciprocal backcross hybrids of the genotype  $(C3H_1/Hc \times DBA/2) \times C3H_1/Hc$ . Takes for BC type 1 were 26% in 236 males and 38% in 270 females; for BC type 2 18% in 207 males and 28% in 208 females. This  $\chi$  influence like the inhibitory role of the subcutaneous site is peculiar to the DBA/2 ascites tumor for it was not found in three other lymphomas similarly tested (76).

Not all the genetic determinants of graft survival need be cellular antigens of the blood group variety. Although the H-2 complex and other histocompatibility loci function through immunological mechanisms metabolic traits or hormonal levels under genetic control by which the inbred donor strain differs from the recipient may also manifest themselves as graft dependence. Such humoral or nutritional needs of the graft could on occasion mimic the segregation of iso-antigens in test hybrids. Blocking merely the immune response of a host by radiation or cortisone gives therefore no assurance that the metabolic requirements of the "successful" homograft or heterograft are adequately met.

#### SEROLOGY AND PROTECTIVE IMMUNIZATION

GOTTLIEB (55) gave an immunologic slant to the genetic basis of transplantation and was first to investigate the role of antibodies in host reactions to transplanted mouse leukemia (56). The complex H-2 "blood group" was characterized both genetically and serologically as the principal locus of mice active in tissue immunity (60). Histocompatibility 2 determines several cellular antigens at once—a situation comparable to the Rh or MNS systems in man (65, 153).

The earlier rather coarse saline hemagglutination method (54) has been refined to a dextran-enhanced procedure. Iso-antibody can now be determined regularly at dilutions up to 1:4000 and not infrequently to 1:16000 (59, 61). Agglutination tests have been extended by Amos

to leukocytes with an iso antibody against lymphogenous mouse leukemia E L 4 (3)

These advances in serological technique coupled with the production of antisera in Snell's isogenic resistant lines (153) prepared the way for a thorough analysis of the eight or more distinct antigenic factors controlled by the H 2 system (6 7 79). The elaboration of this system now facilitates crucial studies—not only of antigenic simplification but also of "new antigens in malignant leukocytes."

According to MacDowell's earlier work (122) a single intraperitoneal injection of fetal skin embryonic viscera or adult liver from strain STOLI (but not from strain C58) conditioned C58 mice to resist an otherwise lethal challenge of C58 line I leukemia. Inoculation with STOLI tissue also rendered C58 mice antagonistic to four additional transplanted lines of C58 leukemia (M liv M kid A L) but was ineffective against lines S T and U and against first transfers of fourteen spontaneous cases.

Since the latter grew at best much more slowly than the virulent line I it is apparent that the establishment of immunity does not hinge on the degree of virulence. Generally those leukemic lines capable of inducing resistance to themselves were also cross reactive with STOLI tissue. Acquired immunity could not prevent the later onset of spontaneous leukemia in the treated C58 mice; experimental immunization apparently becomes effective in proportion to the cumulative genetic gap resulting from long term serial transfer.

In similar tests Brncic *et al* (23 24) achieved complete or partial protection against an AK leukemic line in AK mice which had survived a lethal dose of C58 leukemic cells and in C58 mice pretreated with AK neoplasms. The two transplantable leukemias used H from AK and A from C58 produced a generalized leukemia in nonimmune hosts and killed them in a few days. Partially protected animals had atypical localized lymphosarcomas and survived significantly longer. Protection also followed prior treatment with homologous leukemic material inactivated by hypotonic saline (34).

Considering the fact that antigenic identity between graft and host is questionable in some instances where effective immunization against transplanted leukemic cells was obtained, the available data are nevertheless instructive. Among the more recent cases are reports of induced resistance of C3H mice against their "own" 6C3HED lymphosarcoma (35 36).

Those experiments in which antigenic material and hosts were judiciously controlled according to genotype permit the inference that the

antibodies operative in transplantation immunity are not as a rule specifically antineoplastic but are influenced to a large extent by iso-antigenic relationships (65). For example the *in vitro* neutralizing power of an antiserum for A strain leukemic cells was not weakened by absorbing the saline hemagglutinins. From this Gorer (56) concluded that mice also produce nonagglutinating protective antibodies. The latter could be absorbed by leukemic cells and to a much lesser extent by red cells. Despite the quantitative absorption differences the two types of antibody appeared to be directed against the same iso antigen.

Passive transfer of acquired antileukemic resistance by means of cells was originally accomplished through intraperitoneal injection of minced liver from immunized mice which was followed at once by a challenging tumor dose (122, 142).

Bancie *et al* (23) transferred protection from resistant to susceptible mice by transplanting spleen, thymus and lymph nodes. Liver, kidney, brain or skeletal muscle had no effect. These authors also investigated the dosage aspects of passive transfer (unpublished data). Fifty milligrams of immune isologous spleen was the minimal protective weight. Significantly less immune tissue was required when homologous leukemic material was tested; for instance AK leukemia transplanted into C58. Passive transfer was abrogated by treating the immune AK donors with cortisone before introducing their spleen pulp into susceptible AK mice (47).

In his work on passive transfer of transplantation immunity against lymphosarcoma 6C3HED, Mitchison (130, 131) demonstrated protection only after transfer of local lymph nodes—not however with corresponding nodes from the side opposite to the tumor inoculation site. Neither spleen nor muscle from immunized mice was effective. Failure of spleen probably reflects the local inoculation route employed rather than an inherent inability to protect. Since immune lymph node mince invariably failed to produce tumors in susceptible CBA mice, Mitchison expressed the opinion that resistance was genuinely passive and not the consequence of contamination with viable tumor cells. The possible transfer of fragmented or nonviable antigenic material has not been excluded however. Passive immunity remained firm for 4 days, became weak after 10 days and was lost after 20 days.

In all the above experiments living cells donated by immunized animals were essential for the passive transfer of protection. The reaction whereby normal guinea pig serum is highly effective against 6C3HED lymphoma cells *in vivo* but not *in vitro* suggests host participation through a mechanism not fully understood (86, 163). Heterologous



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antisera produced by rabbits against the Murphy rat lymphosarcoma (137) or against the 6C3HED mouse lymphoma (138) destroyed the corresponding tumors *in vivo*—a step beyond inactivation *in vitro* (56, 148).

Passive *in vivo* protection by cell free iso antiserum presents a more difficult problem which was successfully attacked by Gorer and Amos (4, 62). In this work they took advantage of the extreme sensitivity of C57BL leukemia E L 4 to anti H 2 sera. A strain C3H and BALB/C mice were hyperimmunized against E L 4 until their sera showed high hemagglutinating activity. When such sera were injected into non-immunized mice of foreign strains the usual temporary growths of E L 4 did not develop at the inoculation site unless at least a week had elapsed between serum treatment and tumor challenge. Subsequent tumor implants produced a typical primary response indicating that this was true passive immunity.

Either E L 4 cells or normal C57BL liver were able to remove the hemagglutinating activity from the anti E L 4 sera; however the protective activity could be canceled only by absorption with E L 4 leukemic cells, not with normal C57BL tissues. This interesting result suggests that besides the H 2 component the serum contained a second antibody against an unknown antigen called "X". Anti X after removal of anti H 2B by repeated absorptions with normal C57BL tissue gave potent protection against the C57BL ascites leukemia even in C57BL mice. X may therefore be regarded as a "good antigen" (59).

Similar immunity has been obtained against three other lymphomas (6C3HED, DBA/2 A#2); protection with corresponding antisera being characterized by a delay in tumor development in homologous and isologous animals. The antisera against these lymphomas were fractionated into two components, one of which is precipitable at 13.5% sodium sulfate and the other at 18%. The former fractions, which were largely gamma globulin, contained all the hemagglutinating activity but did not inhibit tumor growth in mice of the home strain; the 18% fraction was protective and was therefore assumed to be directed against a "tumor specific" entity similar to the X in E L 4 (8).

There are at least three possible explanations for this previously unknown system of antigens: (1) H mutations in neoplastic leukocytes; (2) H mutations in the host strains; (3) viruses on which the cells have come to depend. Histocompatibility mutants among the tumor cells (involving qualitative change rather than loss) should theoretically be incompatible and hence would have little competitive value in a compatible cell population. It also is improbable that each of four different

inbred host strains (C57BL C3H DBA/2 and A) has undergone the same general type and degree of antigenic alteration resulting in  $\Delta$ . Therefore the change seems to reside in the leukemic cells.

The apparent frequency of " $\Delta$  antigens" in mouse leukemias as well as the many data on autoimmunization in hemological diseases (33 37 135) prompt the speculation that malignant leukocytes may be weakly antigenic in their original hosts. Thus leukoblastic lysates of acute leukemia patients showed two but lacked one of the main antigenic components of normal leukocytes; they also contained a new particular antigen different from any of those in normal leukocytes (150). If there is a response to these antigens it would perhaps do no more than clear the blood stream of the neoplastic cells or localize the tumor at a given site. The presence or absence of such hypothetical autoantibodies may account for the difference between leukemic and so-called aleukemic leukemias or between lymphosarcoma and generalized lymphatic leukemia.

#### CHROMOSOME BALANCE AND GRAFT COMPATIBILITY

The nucleocytoplasmic ratios in leukocytes make metaphase spreading difficult and are responsible for the relative scarcity of quantitative chromosome data. Bieseles' measurements (15 16) of chromosome size in mice established the following relationships. The chromosomes were largest in long established transplantable leukemia and embryonic lymphocytes; intermediate in the lymphocytes of spontaneous disease and smallest in the normal lymphoblasts of adult mice. The size differences were ascribed to amounts of pepsin digestible protein rather than DNA.

Nuclear lobation and fragmentation was followed through the entire mitotic cycle in the Gardner lymphosarcoma ascites (113). The karyomeres often referred to as "rosette" nuclei by pathologists undergo synchroized prophase. The metaphase chromosomes form a normal plate; anaphase is regular and lobation is reestablished during the nuclear swelling of late telophase.

Improvements in squash techniques such as the acetocarmum method have made it possible to obtain accurate counts of chromosome numbers especially in the ascites lymphomas (71 112 113 151). About two thirds of these leukemic cell populations are near diploid; several interesting near tetraploid strains are on record. The latter include A strain lymphoma #1 the DBA/2 adapted line of the Gardner lymphosarcoma (75) and Potters DBA/2 lymph node leukemia P288 (Table II).

Determinations of deoxyribose and ribose nucleic acids likewise have shown a predominance of diploid values (91 125) However elevated DNA and RNA phosphorus was encountered by Menten *et al* (126) in measurements of splenic lymphocytes from leukemic mice as compared with normal spleens

In a series of integrated cytologic and genetic studies a general relationship between chromosome constitution and transplantation specificity was established Diploid tumors transplanted within the species but outside the iso antigenic barriers set by the genotype of origin fail to grow progressively Aberrations of the chromosome number (heteroploidy of varying degrees) favor more or less indiscriminate violations of immunogenetic boundaries (67 68 71 73 146 147)

This correlation applies as yet without exception to a representative histologic variety of tumors including several mouse lymphomas Confirmatory serologic tests (5 75 81) outlined in Table IV show a significant weakening of antigens as a consequence of polyploidization The essential feature of heteroploidy in so far as it affects gene controlled iso antigenicity of the cell is not chromosome doubling as such but genic imbalance Neither point mutation in a histocompatibility locus nor physical loss of chromosomes carrying important H factors need be involved in bringing about antigenic surface changes Since the molecular configurations of the glycolipoprotein cell surface are probably controlled by a variety of genes—antigenic ones as well as others—any change in the total dosage relationship of loci to each other may displace or alter molecules with specific antigenic function located in the cell membrane It is through surface recognition that the host accepts or rejects the graft

The principle of interrelationship between chromosome number and histocompatibility was put to a crucial test by exposing the diploid 6C3HED lymphosarcoma ascites which always contains a small number of polyploid cells to the selective pressure of immunologically hostile environments (75) During prolonged transfer through refractory mice a near tetraploid subline of the tumor was isolated This was able to kill the formerly refractory DBA/2 mice although it was much less virulent and invasive than the original diploid ascites The iso antigenic specificity of the polyploid derivative was reduced to feeble hemagglutinin absorbing titers in comparison with the potent diploid 6C3HED material A small residue of diploid lymphoma cells giving an H 2k reaction persisted in the tetraploid ascites during its two year absence from the C3H home strain It was possible to reselect this minority gradually toward predominance in the neoplastic population by re

TABLE IV  
CORRELATION BETWEEN CHROMOSOME NUMBER, ISO-ANTIGENICITY AND HOST SPECIFICITY IN SEVERAL MOUSE LYMPHOMAS

Ascites lymphoma	Modal chromosome number	Strain genotype	Iso-antigens of strain of origin	Iso-antigens of tumor	Transplantation specificity	Known violation of H 2 barriers
A #2 lymphoma	44	H 2a	CDEFA	CDEFA	Specific	None
A #1 lymphoma	~80	H 2a	CDEFA	Weak CD Almost absent E F K	Not specific	H 2d
6C3HED	40	H 2k	CdE/K	CEK	Specific	None
6C3HED DBA/2 adapted	~80	H 2k	CdE/K	Almost absent	Not specific	H 2d
6C3HED Swiss adapted	~46	H 2k	CdE/K	Almost absent	Not specific	Several unrelated strains
DBA/2 lymphoma	42	H 2d	CDE <sup>d</sup> /Fk	CDE <sup>d</sup> F	Specific	None
DBA/2 lymphoma	~85	H 2d	CDE <sup>d</sup> /Fk	Not tested	Not specific	Several unrelated strains
Swiss adapted subline						

Summarized from data of Hauschka and Levan (71) Amos (5) Hoecker and Hauschka (81) and Koptowski (97) and unpublished observations

turning the tumor to compatible C3H animals. Thus immunoselection of neoplastic leukocytes both way from and back to the H 2 specific diploid genotype can be experimentally controlled through the use of appropriate hosts.

#### EXPERIMENTAL ALTERATIONS OF GRAFT RESPONSE

Although the mechanism underlying the genetic indifference of heteroploid grafts can be interpreted as immunoselection other means of altering host resistance or graft response are less well understood (68, 164). Among these methods are irradiation, cortisone treatment, adoptive immunization, foster nursing of the host, and specificity changes induced in the graft after intermittent growth in hybrids or through egg passage.

Total body irradiation of refractory mice utilized by Furth *et al* (43) abrogated resistance to leukemic implants. Preparatory radiation treatment also permitted generalized infiltration of liver and spleen in Sprague Dawley rats cross circulated with a noncompatible chloro leukemia from Sherman rats (J. Hollingsworth, unpublished observations).

Heterografts of human myeloid lymphatic and paramyeloblastic leukemia persisted and grew for a while in rats blocked by cortisone and nitrogen mustard (21). However, promising this and similar successes may appear, the physiological incompatibility of the unnatural environment extends beyond the temporarily eliminated antigenic barriers. Conclusions drawn from the reactivity of such leukemic implants to chemotherapeutic and other agents are therefore less reliable than data gained from iso- or homografts.

Law (100, 101) has demonstrated a "susceptibility" influence present in the milk of DBA/2 foster mothers during the first week of the lactation period. Refractory DBA/1 and C3H mice nursed by such mothers supported the growth of lymphoid leukemias LL449 and P1534. A single passage through foster nursed individuals permitted these two lymphomas to grow in serial transfer in resistant hosts giving the same clinical picture as in the home strain. After reinoculation into the susceptible strain the leukemic cells lost their temporary nonspecificity which indicates that the milk influence must arise from within the refractory mice. No such factor was evident in similar tests with myeloid leukemia LL493.

Another quite unrelated foster nursing effect known as the maternal resistance factor (MRF) is contributed by old foster mothers from certain low leukemic strains. This milk factor does not apparently in

fluence the course of transplantable leukemias (124) although it overrides the genetic predisposition toward a high incidence of spontaneous leukemia (102)

Numerous injections of refractory C57L mice with hypophysectomized C57BL myeloid leukemia C1498 prior to challenge with fresh tumor could not produce the anticipated "enhancing phenomenon" commonly obtained with other neoplasms. On the contrary the leukemic homoio-transplants failed to grow even temporarily (152). The large conditioning dosage of dry frozen tumor should have made the C57L hosts tolerant (84) similar to repeated grafting of living cells (115). These contradictory results may be ascribed to differences of pretreatment dosage and of immunogenetic traits in host and graft; they need not indicate the existence of separate enhancing and inhibitory substances especially since both effects may be achieved with the same tumor and both are removable by filtration.

The principle of "actively acquired tolerance" to foreign skin (17) has been confirmed with several strain specific mouse lymphomas (97, 98 and Koprowski personal communication). Blood isologous with the malignant leukocytes was injected into embryos of a refractory strain. Mice so treated during fetal life succumbed in adult life to the otherwise incompatible lymphomas 6C3HED L#2 and DBA/2. After a single passage through mice conditioned in utero subsequent serial transfer in untreated individuals of the foreign strain became possible. Thus secondary changes in the population of graft cells (immunoselection?) appear to be superimposed on the initial "adaptive" alteration of host immunity.

An interesting change in tumor host relationship can be brought about by serial passage of the DBA/2 lymphoma and other neoplasms through the chorio allantoic membrane of the incubating hen's egg (128, 129). After one egg passage the lymphoma became permanently compatible with DBA/1 mice; it also took for two or more successive transfers in about 40% of Swiss C57BL/6 Albino Marsh and Bagg mice. Egg adaptation did not permit growth in C3H mice from which the tumor differs by two histocompatibility genes. The egg adapted ascites growing in the foreign strains showed no significant changes in modal chromosome number, incidence of polyploidy or nuclear lobation; it contained however numerous macrophages, neutrophils and pyknotic nuclei typifying a continuing immune reaction. Mere superficial coating of the malignant lymphocytes with egg substance after magnetic stirring at 4°C did not weaken their antigenic potency. It therefore appears that during growth in embryonated eggs (and perhaps also in other nonspecific



media) the tumor cell surfaces incorporate environmental constituents which temporarily neutralize the mouse iso antigens. Thereby they retard antibody mobilization in genetically refractory hosts and allow more time for selection of compatible cells.

Histocompatibility of tumor grafts can be permanently modified during a single passage through a hybrid genotype (11, 12, 66, 94). This discovery has been further substantiated by tests with mouse lymphomas (65, 66, 68, 75, 158); it appears to involve a general principle. Although  $F_1$  hybrids between susceptible and resistant strains resemble the susceptible parent in giving 100% tumor takes, they are not immunologically neutral.  $F_1$  infants, for example, are much more refractory to low cell dosages of the 6C3HED lymphosarcoma than C3H infants (75). Similarly, cultured leukemic spleen cells of C58 origin produced leukemia in all inoculated mice of the C58 strain even after 3 months *in vitro*. But after only 6 weeks of cultivation, transplantability to animals from a cross between C58 males and Bagg albino females was completely lost (87). This probably reflects a decrease in the inoculum, a certain tumor cell dosage being necessary to overcome the mild immune response in  $F_1$  hybrids. Genetic tests performed before and after  $F_1$  passage have shown either decreased or increased specificity (11, 66, 68, 94). These induced shifts in antigenicity are usually not haphazard but may proceed from a good fit for a given number of histocompatibility genes to an equally close fit for a smaller or larger gene requirement.

Since these changes in transplantation potential become manifest after only brief exposure to  $F_1$  influences, are irreversible and repeatable, and exhibit Mendelian ratios, they have fundamental implications in tissue genetics. Are they merely instances of immunologic selection or antigenic "adaptations"—or do they hint at true somatic recombination (110)? The latter interpretation is especially challenging but is somewhat dampened by the inability of the  $F_1$  effect to obliterate iso antigenic reactivity controlled by the H-2 locus. One gene gap between grafts and backcross hosts, identified as the differences between the H-2 antigens *D* and *k* or *A* and *K*, were unaltered after two consecutive  $F_1$  passages of the 6C3HED lymphosarcoma (75) and the L#2 lymphoma (Hauschka and Kvedar, unpublished observations).

#### LEUKEMIA TRANSMISSION WITH CELL FRAGMENTS AND TISSUE FILTRATES

The initial aim of transplantation with counted numbers of cells was to establish a dose response curve, to demonstrate the autonomy of malignant leukocytes, and to prove that transmission of leukemia was due to the presence of "living" cells in the inoculum. Single cells transmitted

the disease but large numbers of mechanically crushed cells failed to do so under the conditions of earlier experiments (44). Subsequently single-cell techniques have been utilized in clonal studies which were primarily concerned with the mosaic nature of neoplastic cell populations and with questions of somatic mutation (67).

Single cell takes in infant mice can be obtained with yields of up to 30% and the ascites growth derived from intraperitoneally injected cells appear within 3 to 4 weeks. Claims of tumor transmission with chromatin fractions or tissue centrifugates are therefore subject to the criticism that these preparations contained a few microscopically undetectable viable cells. A more portentous interpretation ascribes the resulting tumors to the uptake of chromosome debris. Although transplantation of subcellular genic entities from one mammalian cell to another is as yet in the realm of fancy, this phenomenon is a well established fact in bacterial genetics (109-110). The relevant experiments with leukemia are therefore discussed under the purely speculative common denominator of "transduction" with emphasis on the need for more crucial tests in this area.

Genetic transduction as defined by Lederberg (109) includes under one term a variety of genic recombination mechanisms. Some of these, for example karyogamy and heterokaryosis, occur in nature; others were foreshadowed by the experimental pneumococcus transformation of Griffith, the active substance being a specific nucleic acid of the deoxyribose type (121). The units of exchange are fragments smaller than cells, ranging from whole nuclei through karyomeres to minute portions of chromosomes. Pieces lacking kinetochores presumably would align themselves with the host-cell idiogram either by haphazard tandem attachment or by orderly physical replacement of homologous gene regions. Transduction is a problem not merely of genetic addition but of functional integration, such as the substitutions of allelic flagellar antigens in *Salmonella* (111). It is tempting to presuppose a similar antigenic exchange in the influence of  $F_1$  hybrid hosts on the histocompatibility patterns of transplanted mouse lymphomas (see preceding section).

Kleins experiments with the 6C3HFD lymphosarcoma and the DBA/2 lymphoma (92) were intended as a genetic check on tumor transmission achieved with chromatin fractions by Stasney *et al.* (156-157). Since the tumors which appeared in Kleins  $F_1$  hybrid mice after massive intraperitoneal injection of chromatin were compatible with the susceptible parent strain, he concluded that they were not induced *de novo* in  $F_1$  tissue but resulted from cell contamination in the nuclear

fraction. Although this is an orthodox genetic argument there are occasional exceptions to the general rule that  $F_1$  grafts take only in genotypes which carry the essential iso antigens of both parent strains. Schweitzer and Furth (149) found that leukemias arising in  $F_1$  mice ( $AK \times RF$ ) behaved in transplantation experiments like those originating in  $AK$  that is they were transplantable to the  $AK$  parental stock and hybrids but not to the  $RF$  stock. Klein's  $F_1$  tumors arising after lymphoma chromatin (in which no cells were microscopically detectable) was administered were almost all solid growths whereas Hauschka always obtained ascites after inoculating only twenty to thirty intact viable cells of the same two tumors. Does this perhaps suggest that intimate physical contact between the "transducing" chromatin particles and receptive host cells—such as would occur in the needle path through the body wall but not in the peritoneal fluid—is essential for the conversion of normal lymphocytes into malignant cells?

The difficulty of unequivocal proof for the absence of cells in active fractions has been faced squarely in the original as well as later experiments of Stisney *et al* (156-157) and Paschkis *et al* (140) conducted with the Murphy rat lymphosarcoma. Within 2 weeks (!) after subcutaneous injection of lymphosarcoma chromatin 33% takes were obtained. The localized tumors resembled the Murphy Sturm lymphosarcoma histologically and were accompanied by frequent leukemic infiltrations in liver, spleen and kidney. There was no leukemic blood involvement. The microscopic examination of active chromatin samples revealed no tumor cells. When 3000 neoplastic lymphocytes the minimum number found necessary to induce comparable tumor growth were deliberately added to a chromatin suspension and this mixture was recentrifuged cells were easily recognizable in smears. It seems improbable therefore that contaminating cells would consistently have escaped detection in fixations from eighty separate experiments and in a painstaking search through serially sectioned chromatin isolated from 45 grams of lymphosarcoma.

Leukemic organ infiltration occurred in only 12% of the 202 rats developing local lymphosarcoma after subcutaneous inoculation of several thousand tumor cells—a quantity which would have been detectable in the chromatin fraction. The incidence of invisibility was much higher (43% in 44 rats) after subcutaneous injection of tumor chromatin. If the latter had contained a few intact cells a different pattern and lower frequency of leukemic lesions might have been expected.

Among additional rather convincing though indirect arguments against viable cells as the leukemogenic factor in their work Paschkis

and his collaborators (140) list the following observations. Freezing and thawing or exposure to room temperature rendered the chromatin inactive but did not destroy the viability of cell suspensions. These are acceptable but debatable arguments since many cells perish at room temperature or during freezing and thawing. Transmission of leukemia with such materials is usually accomplished by the surviving cells. The tumor inducing quality of chromatin in the reported experiments may depend on the intact structure of the chromonema. In contrast with lymphosarcoma fractions, similar hepatoma material never induced tumors when injected subcutaneously. To be effective it had to be introduced intrahepatically. This could be interpreted to mean that "transduction" cannot occur in the absence of receptive compatible cell types, i.e. the subcutaneous site contains a sufficient number of hemopoietic cells responsive to lymphosarcoma particles but lacks liver cells with an avidity for hepatoma fragments. Implantation of a few tumor cells into the anterior eye chambers of rats was followed by rapid tumor growth but no tumors developed after intraocular implantation of hepatoma chromatin alone. It would be informative to repeat this experiment with lymphosarcoma chromatin for few if any normal lymphocytes are found in the anterior eye chamber (102) although inflammation will promptly bring them to any site.

Uptake of tumor chromatin would presuppose phagocytic activity of homologous host cells for which evidence is lacking. Since karyomere formation is a cytologic feature of many white cells, a mechanism exists for synchronizing the "ingested" chromatin with the mitotic sequence. The separate micronuclei and lobes undergo simultaneous prophase and their chromosomes enter a bipolar metaphase plate whence they are equally distributed to daughter cells (113). Bits of nuclear material from leukemic lymphocytes incorporated by normal cells during a compatible phase of DNA replication might thus merge with host nuclei and render them malignant.

This assumption (140) has been called "the most explicit claim of transduction outside the bacteria" (110). However, linkage of the transmitted neoplasia with the donor cells histocompatibility type in Kleins'  $F_1$  experiment was thought to require a rather large unit of exchange. If we admit the genetic basis of malignancy and consider autonomy the end point of a multiple mutation sequence, the chance for transposing the malignant constellation together with antigenic markers into one synthetic genome seems quite remote. On the other hand, cellular emancipation from growth-restraining host forces may involve diverse nonspecific nuclear alterations or states of genic imbalance.

This is implied by the differences between spontaneous tumors from genetically homogeneous mouse stocks—or even from the same individual mouse—with respect to growth rates and take percentages in test hybrids (118).

Random introduction of chromatin from leukemic donor tissue into the diploid chromosome complement of normal  $F_1$  lymphocytes would produce varying degrees of aneuploidy and intrachromosomal rearrangements. Among the possible consequences of such genic imbalance are cell death, benign metabolic confusion, oncogenesis, and weakening of the specific iso antigens on the surfaces of the altered  $F_1$  cells. The latter could thereby attain transplantability beyond the limits of immunogenetic rule (69, 71, 73, 75). Genetic proof for the origin of malignant lymphocytes (in  $F_1$  hybrids treated with chromatin fraction or in parental genotype?) is therefore incomplete evidence against the "transduction" of neoplasia with nuclear fragments.

The open question of whether the effective unit in the chromatin transmission experiments is cellular or subcellular is paralleled by the equally unsettled problem of leukemia transmission with filtered tumor extracts (63, 64). Contaminating tumor cells in these filtrates seem to have been ruled out, but the nature of the transfer mechanism—infection versus transduction—is in doubt. The results of Gross with leukemia have been repeated by Woolley with specific genotypic combinations of donor and host (G. W. Woolley, unpublished observations). Law *et al.* (108) were able to obtain pleiomorphic tumors of parotid gland origin in certain test mice following the introduction of cell-free leukemic material. According to Gross, "parotid virus" is supposedly present in leukemic as well as normal tissue extracts.

The cell-free transmissions of Gross were particularly successful in the C3H strain, some lines of which share a histocompatibility factor with AK, the carriers of the presumed leukemia virus. Recently Gross found that certain sublines of C3H are susceptible, others are resistant to this "virus." This remarkable genetic relationship with virus sensitivity led Buffett, Sorenson, and Furth (unpublished data) to investigate on the one hand the host range of the "virus" and on the other hand the host range of AK cells. Their preliminary survey indicates that the agent in AK leukemia extract, injected into newborn mice, enhanced the leukemia incidence in the following strains: C3Heb, DBA/1, RF, BALB/C, and also AK, all individuals of which are supposed to carry the agent. Even on the assumption that cells were present in these extracts, the results cannot be explained by tissue grafting, for the induced leukemias violated anticipated host barriers in transplantation assays. Most of them

did not behave as AK tumors but were transplantable to both donor and recipient strains. They appeared to be "ambivalent."

Studies with lysogenic bacteria and bacteriophages serve as reminders that "virus infection is also a species of genetic recombination" (110). Leukemia transmission from a high leukemic to a low leukemic mouse strain might well be a kindred type of transduction wherein normally nonleukemogenic viruses function as vectors of endogenous "transmissible mutagens" postulated by Murphy (132, 133) for avian virus tumors.

Many cases of accidental hepatitis, choriomeningitis, and other viral infections of transplantable tumors have been recorded (20, 26, 96, 107, 117, 136, 162) but no genetic modification of tumor cells as a consequence of these virus infections was found. Nevertheless it may be worth while to infect deliberately leukemic mouse stocks whose tissues lack the transmitting agent with viruses of limited cytopathogenicity and then to test for altered transmission potential. In discussing viruses the heterogeneity and elusiveness of agents classified under this name should be kept in mind.

Unequivocal evidence for the transport or exchange of genetic particles between mammalian cells will depend on the judicious use of metabolic and isoantigenic characteristics (102). Fortunately the latter are dominant. The difficulty of detecting recessive traits incorporated into the diploid or polyploid chromosome sets of tumor cells limits experimental prospects. Ascites tumor clones with genetically stable features which might prove useful as markers are available, however. Certain clones can be identified by cytoplasmic criteria, chromosome types and numbers, and specific biochemical or antigenic properties (Table II). The labeled cell lineages are viable in frozen storage at  $-76^{\circ}\text{C}$ . (22). Genetic drift *in vivo* prior to transduction tests can thus be minimized. Phagocytosis in certain leukemias (114, 143) provides a natural means of feeding nuclear fragments of one genotype to cells of another. Immunologic incompatibility of the donor tissue in a host environment which matches the recipient cells would serve to neutralize cellular contamination of the chromatin fragments.

Through the opportunistic combination of all these possibilities lymphosarcoma transmission with nuclear fractions and oncologic transduction problems in general can now be attacked with genetic precision. Forecasting the potentialities of somatic tissue genetics, Lederberg (110) believes that only experiments of the type outlined are likely to resolve the genetic basis of differentiation and of neoplasia.

## Closing Comments

Gorer (57) deplores that despite the generally acknowledged usefulness of transplantable tumors there has been a tendency to regard experiments with tumor grafts as somewhat old fashioned and this field as more or less closed. An abundance of new uses for these old tools is however apparent from our survey. Even a skeptical appraisal of contemporary work in rodent leukemia should dispel utilitarian misgivings (83): transplanted mouse leukemia is still the "best experimental tool for studying the complex problems of the chemotherapy of leukemia" (25-89).

Among the new methods and concepts those borrowed from microbiology are especially apt to advance leukemia research. In the recent past the transplantation field has graduated from the 16 gauge trocar to the micromanipulator, from tissue mash to single cell clone, from the ill defined "white laboratory mouse" to isogenic resistant lines, from diameters of tumor lumps to variance analysis for somatic mutation. Through improvements in cytologic and immunologic techniques the infant science of somatic tissue genetics has come into its own. Knowledge of the neoplastic leukocyte, gained on the cellular level and on the more obscure level of host restraint, cannot fail to reinforce clinical investigation.

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## 6

### Genetic and Nongenetic Factors Influencing the Induction of Mouse Leukemia<sup>1</sup>

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The incidence of leukemia is high in certain inbred strains of mice in others the disease occurs rarely. Even when the incidence is high certain members of an inbred strain remain leukemia free. Nongenetic influences are probably responsible for the nonappearance of leukemia in a minority of animals of genetically homogeneous high leukemia stocks. In the C58 strain the incidence of leukemia in the progeny of the nonleukemics is as high as in the offspring of mice which develop the disease indicating that the leukemics and nonleukemics are genetically similar (19).

Leukemia may be induced in low leukemia stocks by the administration of leukemogenic agents—x rays (2) carcinogenic hydrocarbons (21) and estrogenic hormone (3). Inherited factors are important in determining susceptibility to leukemogens. Certain inbred strains of mice are highly susceptible to the leukemogenic action of specific agents whereas others do not respond to the same agents (11). Strain C58 which exhibits a high incidence of spontaneous leukemia does not respond to the leukemogenic action of methylcholanthrene whereas the low leukemia DbA/2 strain is very susceptible (Kirschbaum and Liebelt unpublished observations). Synergistic effects may be obtained when animals are susceptible to the independent action of each of two leukemo-

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gens, suggesting that leukemia inciting agents may have a common path way of action

Genes determining susceptibility to leukemogenic action exert their influence in the target lymphoid or myeloid tissue. Strong A mice are susceptible to the induction of lung and mammary tumors by methylcholanthrene (26) but absolutely refractory to the induction of leukemia (Kirschbaum and Mixer 15 Kirschbaum and Liebelt unpublished observations). On the other hand *Db*a/2 mice resist the induction of lung tumors by the same chemical carcinogen but are susceptible to the genesis of both leukemia and mammary neoplasms. Were systemic metabolism of the carcinogen the gene determined factor then a differential response of target tissues to a single agent within one type of host might not be expected.

Gross reports that when the leukemia virus is transmitted to "low leukemia" strains immediately after birth leukemogenesis results (5). Carcinogen  $\times$  ray or hormone induced leukemia appears in "low leukemia" strains if treatment is begun even months postpartum. The virus of mouse mammary cancer cannot be demonstrated in breast tumors induced in mice which have been rendered virus free by foster nursing (Kirschbaum and Liebelt unpublished observations). If a leukemia virus is implicated in *spontaneous* leukemogenesis it does not follow that a similar agent is involved in *induced* leukemia.

For leukemia induction the mouse thymus plays an important role. Furth (1) originally demonstrated its significance in the genesis of spontaneous leukemia; the incidence was remarkably reduced in AK "high leukemia" mice which had been thymectomized. Kaplan (7) showed that thymectomy similarly reduces the incidence of  $\times$  ray induced leukemia of C57BL mice and Law and Miller (17) obtained a reduced incidence of methylcholanthrene induced leukemia in *Db*a/2 mice if the thymus had been extirpated. Susceptibility to the leukemogenic action of methylcholanthrene does not reside essentially in the thymus however. By regulating the dose of carcinogen it was demonstrated that the thymus possesses a lower threshold of sensitivity (12) and that gonadectomy enhances susceptibility of *Db*a/2 mice to the induction of leukemia whether or not the thymus is present (14).

Law and Miller (17) have obtained evidence that the function of the thymus may be to provide a suitable environment for the transformation of normal to leukemic lymphocytes. Normal thymus of a high leukemia parent strain was grafted into thymectomized  $F_1$  hybrids between the high and a low leukemia strain. Spontaneous leukemia developed in high incidence in these  $F_1$  hybrids if they possessed normal thymus.

grafts from the high leukemia parent stock. Thymus grafts from the low leukemia parent strain did not stimulate leukemogenesis.

After the development of leukemia in Law's experiments transplantation studies revealed that the leukemic cells in the thymectomized  $F_1$  hybrids originated from the host rather than the cells of the thymic grafts. The graft apparently provided the inciting environment in which leukemic transformation of host lymphocytes occurred. Genetic factors may thus influence a tissue environment specific for leukemogenesis.

In similar experiments on x-ray induction of leukemia Kaplan *et al* (9) have found that leukemic lymphocytes may arise from the thymic graft per se. X-ray induced leukemic transformation may occur in thymic grafts made after irradiation of the host; the leukemogenic effects of x-rays being "secondary" via a humoral factor (9).

The development of leukemia is dependent on nongenetic as well as on genetic factors. Nongenetic influences may either initiate or modify leukemogenesis. As indicated above genetic factors determine whether or not a host responds to such initiating agents as methylcholanthrene or estrogenic hormone. Factors which modify the genesis and the growth of leukemic cells are considered below.

Steroid hormones may considerably influence leukemogenesis. Estrogenic hormone is independently leukemogenic in certain strains of mice (3). If combined with x-rays synergistic action may be demonstrated (16). Androgenic hormone may nullify the leukemogenic action of estrogens (3) or depress the activity of x-rays (4, 8) or methylcholanthrene (13) in inducing leukemia. Cortisone may delay the appearance of spontaneous (28), x-ray induced (10) or methylcholanthrene induced (Kirschbaum and Liebelt unpublished observations) leukemia. These effects have been obtained under specifically defined situations involving the doses of agents and strains of mice so that generalizations are not in order.

In AKR mice the inhibiting effect of androgens on spontaneous leukemogenesis has been demonstrated (23). The incidence may be higher and the age of onset earlier in the females of certain high leukemia strains (24). This discrepancy in onset between the sexes is especially apparent in  $F_1$  hybrids between the high leukemia C58 and certain low leukemia strains (Kirschbaum and Liebelt unpublished observations).

Aging modifies susceptibility to leukemogens. Whether this is the result of involution of target tissue induced by hormonal factors or an intrinsic alteration dependent on other influences has not been shown. C57BL mice are highly susceptible to the leukemogenic effects of x-rays only if the mice are irradiated prior to 6 months of age (6). Db $\alpha$ /2

mice respond to the leukemogenic action of methyleholanthrene only if treated relatively early in life. Mice resistant as a result of aging may have their susceptibility restored by gonadectomy (Kirschbaum and Liebelt unpublished observations).

*Life expectancy* may be correlated with latent period of leukemia genesis.  $F_1$  hybrid mice live longer than pure strain high leukemia parents and the age of appearance of spontaneous leukemia is delayed (11). CBA mice have a longer life expectancy than DBA/2s and the latent period of development of leukemia is correspondingly longer (22).

A *maternal resistance factor* of StoLi mice is transmitted to  $F_1$  progeny of this strain and high leukemia C58 males (18). This factor is passed on either transplacentally or through the breast milk; it delays the onset of spontaneous leukemia and reduces its incidence.  $F_1$  hybrids with the StoLi rather than the C58 mothers developing less leukemia later in life. When pure C58 mice were foster nursed by StoLi females a similar effect was obtained (20). Not only does this maternal resistance factor affect the development of leukemia but life expectancy is increased.

*Calorie restriction* may, as in the case of spontaneous mammary cancer of mice (27), decrease leukemia incidence (25). In experiments designed to inhibit the development of leukemia the factor of inanition must always be controlled. For example administration of cortisone may depress the body weight and unless the dose is carefully regulated or pair fed animals are used as controls delay in onset of leukemia can not be attributed to any specific action of cortisone.

To summarize genetic factors influence the development of spontaneous and induced mouse leukemia. Leukemogenic agents include ionizing radiations, chemical carcinogens and estrogenic hormone. Certain influences (e.g. administered cortisone) may modify the growth of leukemic cells although initiation of the disease is not inhibited. Other factors may actually inhibit leukemogenesis (caloric restriction and administered androgen, thymectomy).

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## Viral Etiology of Mouse Leukemia<sup>1</sup>

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It has been demonstrated during the past several years in our laboratory that mouse leukemia is caused by a filterable thermolabile agent which is transmitted in certain families of mice from one generation to another directly through the embryos (6-11)

Filtered (Berkefeld N or Selas O2 or O3) extracts prepared from leukemic donors (that is from either Ak or C58 mice which developed leukemia "spontaneously") and inoculated into newborn mice (less than 16 hours old) of a susceptible but essentially nonleukemic strain (such as C3H or C57 Brown) induced typical generalized leukemia after a latency varying from several months to more than a year (Table I and Fig 1) (6-15)

When Ak leukemic cell suspensions were inoculated into newborn C3H mice leukemia resulted within 2 to 4 weeks (5). This leukemia however was apparently the result of multiplication of the implanted Ak cells leukemic cell suspensions prepared from such C3H donors could be transplanted to adult healthy mice of the Ak strain but not to adult mice of the C3H (recipient) line (Table II)

On the other hand when leukemia was induced in C3H mice by inoculation of cell free extracts (injecting newborn C3H mice with centrifuged or filtered Ak extracts and inducing leukemia after a latency of several months) the resulting leukemia could be transplanted to adult mice of the C3H (recipient) line but could not be grafted back to the Ak donor strain (Table III)

These transplantation experiments suggest that leukemia induced in

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C3H mice by inoculation of centrifuged or filtered Ak extracts consists of the recipient hosts cells changed into leukemic cells by the pathogenic action of the inoculated cell free agent

Heating of the extracts to 68° for ½ hour inactivated their pathogenic potency (11-13)

TABLE I  
INOCULATION OF FILTERED (SELAS OR BERKEFELD) AK LEUKEMIC EXTRACTS INTO NEWBORN C3H OR C3H(f) MICE OF TWO SUBSTRAINS

Substrain	Fresh extracts			Heated extracts		
	Number inoculated	Number developing leukemia†	Number developing parotid tumors‡	Number inoculated	Number developing leukemia†	Number developing parotid tumors‡
Bittner C3H	138	32(23%)	24	73	0	1
Bittner C3H(f)	182	58(32%)	9	93	2	4
Bittner total	320	90(28%)	33	166	2	5
N C I C3H(f)	162	7(4%)	9	45	0	0

One half hour at 65° to 68°

† Average age leukemia 11 months parotid tumors 5 months

Average age of mice dying without tumors or leukemia 16 months

TABLE II  
TRANSPLANTATION OF LEUKEMIC CELL SUSPENSIONS (FROM SPONTANEOUS TRANSPLANTED OR INDUCED LEUKEMIA) INTO ADULT MICE OF AK AND C3H STRAINS

Leukemic donor		Results of inoculation of adult recipient mice	
Donor's strain	Donor's leukemia resulted from	Strain Ak	Strain C3H
Ak	Spontaneous	Positive	Negative
C3H	Inoculation of Ak leukemic cells	Positive	Negative
C3H	Inoculation of cell free Ak agent†	Negative	Positive

Ak leukemic cells grafted into newborn C3H mice cause leukemia in 2 to 3 weeks

† After inoculation of cell free Ak extracts into newborn C3H mice leukemia develops after 3 to 24 months

TABLE III  
BASIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRANSPLANTED (BY CELL GRAFT) AND INDUCED  
(BY INOCULATION OF CELL FREE EXTRACTS) LEUKEMIA

Method	Results of inoculation into mice of				Incubation time months	Leukemic tumor at site of inoculation	Resulting leukemia can be transplanted to
	Same strain (AK)		Susceptible foreign strain (C3H or C57 Brown)				
	Newborn	Adult	Newborn	Adult			
Transplantation of leukemic cells	Positive	Positive	Positive	Negative	1-1	Usually present	Donor strain
Inoculation of cell free AK leukemic agent	††	Negative	Positive	Negative	3-24	Absent	Recipient strain

Centrifuged  $7000 \times g$  or Filtered

† Possibly accelerated development of "spontaneous" leukemia

After centrifugation at  $144\,000 \times g$  for periods of time varying in a recent series of experiments from 15 minutes to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  hours the pathogenic potency of the extracts was with only few exceptions limited to the sediment pellet (22)



FIG 1 This C57 Brown female (No 150 Expt 2507 A) developed typical generalized leukemia at the age of 14 months as a result of inoculation when less than 3 hours old with supernatant of a centrifuged ( $7000 \times g$ ) Ak leukemic extract. Note very large leukemic nodes under chin in axillary and inguinal pits also very large spleen.

The leukemic tissues could be preserved by dry freezing or stored in 50% glycerin for at least several months retaining their pathogenic potency. When resuspended, centrifuged and inoculated into newborn C3H mice such extracts induced leukemia, parotid gland tumors or soft tissue sarcomas (18, 20).

The leukemic agent could be passed by cell free inoculations of newborn hosts for 6 consecutive passages thus far. After each of the

first 3 passages the latency period appeared to be shortened suggesting increased potency of the recovered extract (20)

These experiments suggest that leukemia in mice is caused by a filterable thermolabile agent which has the ability to multiply and to induce specific symptoms of disease these characteristics are those of a pathogenic virus

Extracts prepared from normal embryos of healthy animals of leukemic lines (such as Ak or C58) were found to contain the leukemic agent inoculation of such extracts into newborn susceptible mice resulted in the development of leukemia It is apparent therefore that the leukemic agent is transmitted from one generation to another directly through the embryos (8 16 20)

The fact that the filtered or centrifuged leukemic extracts inoculated into newborn mice of a susceptible strain induced leukemia in some animals but parotid gland tumors or soft tissue sarcomas in others (Figs 2 and 3) suggests two possibilities either one single agent might be able to induce leukemia or other types of malignant tumors or the extract used for inoculation contained a mixture of several distinct oncogenic agents (13 20)

Only on very rare occasions did mice develop both leukemia and parotid tumors In most instances those among the inoculated mice that developed leukemia had neither parotid tumors nor sarcomas On the other hand parotid tumors developed occasionally in the same animals in which simultaneously or shortly afterward subcutaneous sarcomas also appeared

Spontaneous leukemia is extremely rare in untreated mice of our C3H strain the incidence is below 0.5% Parotid tumors and subcutaneous sarcomas are virtually unknown in untreated C3H mice of the subline used in our laboratory

These experiments have been repeated at the National Cancer Institute (23) and more recently also at the Sloan Kettering Institute (25) When filtered Ak or C58 leukemic extracts were inoculated by Law and his co workers into newborn C3H mice of the National Cancer Institute subline parotid tumors or subcutaneous sarcomas could be induced but very few leukemias appeared among the inoculated mice The National Cancer Institute subline of the C3H strain appears therefore to be substantially less susceptible to the leukemogenic action of the extracts than the Bittner subline of the same C3H inbred strain used in our laboratory (17) Accordingly when Woolley recently repeated the same experiments at the Sloan Kettering Institute in New York, using newborn C3H mice of the susceptible Bittner substrain for inoculation

of the filtered extracts either leukemia parotid tumors or subcutaneous sarcomas could be induced (25)

The fact that the leukemic extracts inoculated into newborn C3H mice were able to induce either leukemia parotid tumors or soft tissue sar



FIG. 2. Bilateral parotid gland tumors developing in a 12 month old C3H(f) female (No 18 Expt 2275-C) as a result of inoculation when less than 15 hours old with filtered (Berkefeld) Ak leukemic extract

comas is puzzling. If we assume that a single agent may be able to induce such different types of neoplasms this fact alone would be of fundamental importance. On the other hand if we assume that the injected extracts contain a mixture of several distinct oncogenic agents such an assumption also may be of basic importance. An association of

several distinct oncogenic agents may not be coincidental the possibility of a synergistic action might be considered.

In recent experiments it was observed that when the leukemic extracts were mixed *in vitro* with ethyl ether the ability of such extracts to induce leukemia was with rare exceptions destroyed (21). On the other hand the potency of the ether treated extracts to induce either



FIG. 3. Bilateral parotid tumors developing in a C3H female (No. 110 Expt 2709 B) at the age of 4 months as a result of inoculation when less than 15 hours old with supernatant from centrifuged ( $7000 \times g$ ) A<sub>1</sub> leukemic extract diluted 1:100,000. Note typical appearance of these tumors similar to clusters of grapes on both sides of the neck.

parotid tumors or sarcomas did not appear to be appreciably impaired. Should the leukemic extracts used for inoculation contain three distinct oncogenic agents it would be possible to speculate that the ether treatment *in vitro* destroyed the more sensitive leukemic agent without apparently affecting the more resistant parotid tumor and sarcoma agents.

There were basic differences among the three different types of neo-



plasm induced with the leukemic extracts. The leukemias induced with the cell free extracts were typical generalized in most instances lymphatic usually involving the blood and bone marrow and transplantable in practically 100% into adult mice of the recipient (C3H) strain.

The parotid tumors occasionally developed very early and were usually bilateral composed of grape-like clusters of tumors arising in



FIG. 4. Photomicrograph of a parotid gland tumor which developed in a C3H(f) male (No. 363 Expt. 2709 C) at the age of 4½ months as a result of inoculation when less than 15 hours old with supernatant from centrifuged (7000 × g) A<sub>k</sub> leukemic extract diluted 1:100 (Hematoxylin and eosin × 95).

multiple foci in the parotid glands (Fig. 3). In initial phases of development these tumors were of adenocarcinomatous type (Fig. 4) but later bands of cells resembling sarcomas could be found between the acinar clusters. In more advanced phases of development the carcinomatous character of these tumors was for all practical purposes lost the tumors assuming purely sarcomatous structure. The parotid tumors could not always be transplanted to adult C3H mice even when successfully

transplanted for one two or several successive generations subsequent transfers would frequently grow poorly or not at all

Finally the subcutaneous sarcomas developing usually in older animals were hard white infiltrating tumors very difficult to dissect and grind Microscopically there were fibrosarcomas (Figs 5 and 6) fibromyosarcomas giant cell tumors etc When transplanted into adult C3H mice they grew very poorly taking only occasionally and after a considerable delay of several weeks or months A few however could

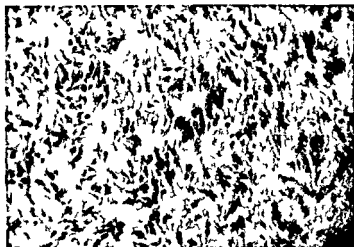


FIG 5 Primary fibrosarcoma This hard infiltrating subcutaneous tumor developed on the back of a C3H male (No 404 Expt 806-E) at 10 months of age This mouse was inoculated with filtered (Selas 03) extract prepared from parotid gland tumor The parotid gland tumor used for the preparation of the extract had been induced with Ak leukemic extract (Hematoxylin and eosin  $\times 200$ )

be transplanted successfully retaining their initial microscopic appearance

With rare exceptions the induced C3H leukemia could not be transplanted to adult mice of the Ak strain (11) None of the parotid tumors or sarcomas could be transplanted into adult Ak mice

In an attempt to recover the agent the C3H mice in which leukemia was induced by inoculation of cell free Ak leukemic extracts were used as donors of leukemic tissues serving for the preparation of leukemic extracts Such centrifuged or filtered C3H leukemic extracts were then inoculated into newborn C3H mice As a result some of the inoculated mice developed leukemia and others developed parotid tumors or subcutaneous sarcomas (18) (Table IV)

In other series of experiments C3H mice in which parotid tumors were induced by inoculation of cell free Ak leukemic extracts were used as donors. Parotid tumors removed from these mice were ground with physiological saline solution centrifuged ( $7000 \times g$ ) and in some instances also filtered. These extracts were then inoculated into newborn C3H mice. As a result some of the inoculated mice developed typical generalized leukemia and others developed parotid tumors and/or subcutaneous sarcomas (18) (Table V)

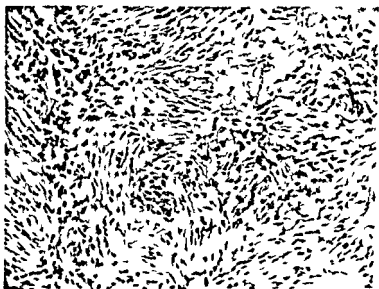


FIG. 6. Fibrosarcoma which developed subcutaneously in the right axillary pit in a C3H(f) male (No. 363 Expt 2709 C) at 4 months of age. This mouse was inoculated when less than 15 hours old with centrifuged ( $7000 \times g$ ) Ak leukemic extract diluted 1:100. This mouse developed also a parotid tumor. (Hematoxylin and eosin  $\times 200$ )

Finally, cell free centrifuged or filtered extracts were prepared from the induced subcutaneous sarcomas. These extracts were then inoculated into newborn C3H mice. These experiments are still in progress. Among the inoculated mice, however, some have already developed either parotid tumors or subcutaneous sarcomas. In other instances typical generalized leukemia has developed (22) in the inoculated mice.

It appears, therefore, that leukemia in mice is caused by a submicroscopic agent, presumably a virus, which is transmitted directly through the germinal cells from one generation to another. In most instances, this agent would be so well adapted to its carrier host that it would cause no symptoms of disease (16).

TABLE IV  
INOCULATION OF CELL FREE EXTRACTS FROM INDUCED C3H LEUKEMIAS INTO  
NEWBORN C3H AND C3H(F) MICE

Number of extracts	Strain	Number of mice inocu- lated†	Number developing leukemia‡	Number developing parotid tumors‡	Number developing sarcomas‡
	C3H	84	2‡	9	3
	C3H(f)	40	20	3	0
18		124	44‡	12‡	3

Part of the data in this table have been published previously (18) however these experiments have been continued and additional mice have developed leukemia parotid tumors and/or sarcomas. The adjusted data reflect results available at this time.

† Average age leukemia 7 months; parotid tumor 5 months; sarcomas 11 months.

‡ Two developed parotid tumors also.

§ Four developed subcutaneous sarcomas also.

TABLE V  
INOCULATION OF CELL FREE EXTRACTS FROM INDUCED PAROTID TUMORS INTO  
NEWBORN C3H OR C3H(F) MICE

Number of extracts	Number of mice inocu- lated	Number developing leukemia‡	Number developing parotid tumors‡	Number developing sarcomas‡
38	300	49	23‡	28

\* Part of the data in this table have been published previously (18) however these experiments have been continued and additional mice have developed leukemia parotid tumors and/or sarcomas. The adjusted data reflect results available at this time.

† Average age leukemias 14 months; parotid tumors 6 months; sarcomas 15 months.

‡ Of these 6 developed parotid tumors and subcutaneous sarcomas; 2 developed parotid, submaxillary and adrenal tumors.

It is quite possible to assume that under normal conditions of life the host-parasite relationship would be so well balanced that the change of the agent from a symbiont to that of a pathogenic parasite would occur only very occasionally perhaps once in many generations of the carrier hosts. Thus the incidence of leukemia developing spontaneously in descendants of the same family and caused by a direct transmission

of the same virus might be separated by few or many generations of perfectly healthy hosts even though such animals may be carrying and transmitting the seeds of disease

By selective inbreeding of either descendants or close relatives of leukemic mice it was possible eventually to develop families carrying a leukemic agent of high pathogenic potential. Gradually, by repeating such a selection over a period of years, it was possible to obtain lines such as the Ak (24) and C58 (24) strains of mice not only carrying the agent but actually developing active disease in practically every generation.

For the preparation of extracts if a leukemic donor is selected from a family in which leukemia develops only exceptionally, the leukemic virus present in such extracts will probably be of low pathogenic potency. When injected into susceptible hosts it may induce leukemia only on rare occasions. This is an example of a stable symbiont type of leukemic agent with a tendency to exist on perfect terms with its carrier host comparable perhaps to a lysogenic phage.

On the other hand, an extract prepared from a leukemic donor of a family such as Ak or C58 in which leukemia develops frequently and at early age will usually contain a leukemic agent of high pathogenic potential. If inoculated under proper experimental conditions into a susceptible host such an agent may induce a high incidence of leukemia.

It is apparent that cell free transmission of mouse leukemia can be accomplished in the laboratory only under certain rather limited experimental conditions. Only newborn mice can be used for inoculations preferably less than 12 hours old and if possible less than 6 hours old. When animals more than 16 hours old are used for inoculations the results become erratic and the development of leukemia or tumors considerably delayed if it occurs at all. (This appears to be true at least for this form of leukemia which occurs in Ak and C58 strains of mice.)

Furthermore, the animals must be of a susceptible strain. The genetic susceptibility is obviously of fundamental importance since differences between sublines of the same inbred line may be sufficient to determine success or failure of the experiment (17). Furthermore, some strains such as the C3H appear to be susceptible to the induction of either leukemia, parotid tumors, or subcutaneous sarcomas, whereas mice of the C57 Brown inbred line inoculated under apparently identical experimental conditions develop leukemia (15) but only on rare occasions parotid gland tumors (20).

The leukemic agent appears to be rather labile and extracts must be

inoculated promptly after preparation in any event within 48 hours having been kept in the meantime at 0

The ability of a cell free extract to induce leukemia appears to depend on the amount of infective virus. This may vary to a considerable degree according to the donor from which the tissues are collected for the

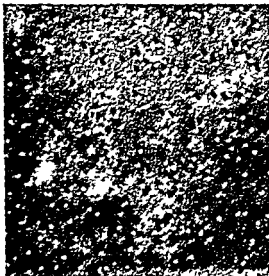


FIG. 7. Electron micrograph of a leukemic extract prepared from a C3H mouse in which leukemia was induced with a potent extract. (The potency of the extract was increased by several successive cell free passages through newborn hosts.) The extract for electron microscopy was prepared from leukemic spleen, liver and lymphoid tumors. After preliminary centrifugation this extract was filtered first through Sela's candle, then through Gradacol membrane porosity 740 m $\mu$ , and then through membrane 140 m $\mu$ . Drop preparation fixed with osmic acid, chromium shadowed (RCA Electron Microscope I MU mag.  $\times 24,750$ ). Numerous spherical particles varying in diameter from 30 to 70 m $\mu$ . (This electron micrograph was prepared with the assistance of Mr. Marvin D. Boatright.)

preparation of such an extract. In this respect mouse leukemia would not be different from chicken lymphomatosis (3) or the Rous sarcoma (1). The richer the extract in infective virus, the higher the incidence of induced leukemia and the shorter the latency period.

If an extract relatively high in infective virus is to be prepared, the leukemic donors should be selected among those AK or C58 mice which developed spontaneous leukemia early in life rather than among older ones.

More potent extracts however able to induce leukemia after a relatively shorter latency period could be prepared from leukemic organs of C3H or C57 Brown mice in which leukemia had been induced by inoculation of cell free Ak or C58 leukemic extracts. Recently it was found that the potency of the leukemic extracts could be considerably increased by passing the agent through several successive generations by means of cell free inoculations into newborn hosts (20).

Recent experiments still in progress in which Gradocol membranes have been used for the filtration of the leukemic extracts suggest that the mouse leukemia agent is a particle less than 100 m $\mu$  in diameter (22). These preliminary results appear to be consistent with our current experiments dealing with the sedimentation of the leukemic agent in an ultracentrifuge (22). Electron microscopic studies carried out in our laboratory appear to indicate that the leukemic extracts contain particles having a diameter somewhere between 30 and 70 m $\mu$  (Fig. 7). Whether these particles actually represent the leukemic agent(s) remains yet to be determined.

In summary mouse leukemia was found to be caused by a filterable thermolabile agent transmitted in certain families of mice from one generation to another directly through the embryos. In this respect mouse leukemia would be essentially similar to chicken lymphomatosis (3).

The fact that filtered extracts prepared from mouse leukemia and inoculated into newborn mice of certain susceptible strains may induce either leukemia, parotid gland tumors or subcutaneous sarcomas requires further study. The leukemic agent may be able to induce different types of neoplasms. On the other hand the leukemic extracts may contain a mixture of several distinct oncogenic agents.

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## Added Comment

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The previous discussions relating to etiologic factors in leukemogenesis point up the lack of any definitive unifying concept. There are many etiologic agents related in some manner to the induction of lymphomas in experimental animals: radiations, carcinogenic hydrocarbons, estrogens, possibly adrenal and pituitary hormones, and possibly viral like agents.

It is recognized that for any given morphologic form of neoplasm—that is, skin carcinomas, lung adenomas, hepatomas, and so on—many different carcinogenic agents are capable of their induction. Are we to assume that the underlying neoplastic response is the same in all cases? This has never been proved, although in the leukemias certain of the leukemogenic agents are known to act synergistically at below threshold levels (6).

Too little attention has been given to the different morphologic forms of lymphomas in the experimental animal. In the mouse the common form is the lymphocytic neoplasm, but in addition there are found granulocytic leukemia, plasma cell neoplasms, types A and B neoplasms (monocytic, histiocytic, and Hodgkin's like lesions), mast cell neoplasms, and so forth.

Should these be considered *biologically* as well as clinically and morphologically independent diseases? Is such a classification one of convenience only, or is it related to basic principles of etiology? In the DBA/2 strain of mice, for example, fractionated irradiation induces preponderantly lymphocytic neoplasms of thymic origin, whereas carcinogenic hydrocarbons induce the whole gamut of morphologic forms of lymphomas (Potter, unpublished observations).

One would inquire, for example, in Dr Gross's work, whether he is talking about the induction of lymphocytic neoplasms or other forms. There exists at the present time a subline of C3H mice which does have a fairly high incidence of lymphomas—40 to 50%—so called subline C3H/

Fg These are preponderantly nonlymphocytic (2/8). To date there is no evidence of a viral etiology in this subline (8).

To re-emphasize one point that appeared in the literature years ago, unmistakable evidence shows that susceptibility to leukemia in the mouse has a genetic basis (11). The early work of MacDowell using crosses between a high leukemic C58 and a low leukemic STOLI strain is of particular interest.

The problem in any genetic analysis in which heritability is not Mendelian is to determine whether the animals in a generation in which re-assortment of genes is occurring are uniform or diverse in their potentialities to produce leukemia. If one assumes the presence within a high leukemic strain of mice—the AKR strain for example—of a nongenetic cellular pathogen, this would in all likelihood be maintained at a uniform level in the strain by inbreeding. On crossing with a low leukemic strain it would be reduced to lower levels.

Thus it would be expected that all individuals in a second hybrid generation—for example a backcross—would have uniform potentialities of developing leukemia. If genes were responsible for the differences between high and low leukemic strains, the mice in a second hybrid generation would be a genetically diverse group since there occurs re-assortment of genes in crossbreeding depending on the distribution of chromosomes.

The "progeny test" was used by MacDowell in classifying backcross mice (high  $\times$  low leukemic strains) as to their genetic uniformity or diversity. The classification was based on the incidence of leukemia in families of mice obtained by mating backcross males to low leukemic females (and not on a plus or minus description of individual mice). Significant differences in the incidence of leukemia among families were found ranging from 0 to 43%. If more than one gene is involved in susceptibility, a continuous variation (rather than bimodal) is expected and indeed this has been found.

This information suggests the existence of many different genotypes among the backcross males tested and provides a genetic basis for susceptibility. Additional evidence is found in linkage tests. Susceptibility to leukemia has been found in at least two linkage groups of the mouse (7, 10).

Such evidence does not rule out the possibility of nongenetic variables playing a decisive role in the etiology of leukemia, however. The mammary tumor milk agent in mice plays a major role as an etiologic agent in certain experimental situations yet in other situations it appears non-effective. As shown by Heston *et al.* (4), this viruslike agent is under

strict genetic control as far as its propagation and transmission are concerned. On the other hand 40% mammary carcinomas have been observed in mice of a particular C3H<sub>1</sub> subline in which the milk agent is known not to be present as far as can be determined by biologic tests (5).

Of three known major etiologic factors concerned with the induction of mammary carcinoma in mice a combination of any two will realize the potentialities of carcinoma. No single factor however has been shown to cause in all or none difference under any set of conditions. In delineating the etiologic factors in leukemia one has to keep these experimental observations in mind.

Thus it remains to be determined what the major known factors are in the etiology of leukemia. Genetic susceptibility or perhaps resistance—and there is some evidence that resistance to leukemia has a genetic basis (that is resistance to the spontaneous occurrence of leukemia)—must play a significant role.

Any discussion of the etiology and pathogenesis of lymphocytic neoplasms in the mouse must consider the role of the thymus. Removal of this organ nearly completely overrides the potentialities of developing lymphocytic neoplasms in the spontaneous (AK, AKR, C58) carcinogen induced (DBA) and radiation induced (C57BL, B × A) disease. The part thymic tissue plays in other morphologic forms of lymphoma in mice remains to be determined. Nonetheless this tissue appears to be a *sine qua non* for the development of lymphocytic neoplasms since transfer of thymic tissue to the subcutaneous connective tissues expresses the potentiality of the mouse to develop the neoplasm. Paradoxically in many cases the transferred thymic tissue does not supply the progenitor cells of the neoplasm but has the characteristics of a genetically determined "sphere of influence" from which the neoplasm arises (9).

Dr. Gross has implicated a viruslike agent as one of the etiologic factors in lymphocytic neoplasms in mice. Its role in relation to genetic susceptibility to carcinogens and to irradiation and so on should be considered. Does irradiation for example inactivate a latent virus? I know of no evidence in this regard for any neoplasm.

A more critical evaluation should be made of the observations reported from the laboratories of Graffi and colleague (1, 3) who report the induction in mice of leukemia (particularly in one report 30% chloromas) after injection of filtrates of Ehrlich carcinoma, Sarcoma 37 and Landschutz mouse Sarcomas I and II. There also exists a report in the literature of a probable relationship between LCM virus and lym

phomas (13) This was a study with non inbred Princeton RI mice and the differences between control and experimental groups were not large

Finally to re-emphasize what Dr Hauschka stated a suggestion of the operation of a transformation phenomenon (speaking in terms of bacterial transformation) has been offered by Stisney and colleagues (12) where the tumorigenic quality itself is allegedly transferred by DNA preparations (at least chromatin preparations) The validity of these observations is predicated on the purity of the chromatin fraction (purity re absence of cells)

The present evidence appears to be against any such interpretation as far as the observations of Stisney and colleagues are concerned but the possibility of transformations relating to leukemia should be critically pursued The availability of ascitic neoplasms and the analogy between these and microorganisms especially *E. coli* needs hardly be stressed There appears much to be gained in pursuing the analogy both in method and in concept

One of the difficulties however in pursuing such an analogy has been the lack of suitable markers in somatic cells It is now possible to use in certain ascitic lymphomas markers such as histocompatibility markers and resistance to antileukemic drugs Work in this particular field will be rather rewarding

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## General Discussion

DR EDWIN L. OSGOOD (Portland Oregon) As Dr Law pointed out there is need for a unifying concept of the leukemias lymphomas and cancer Since 1950 we have had such a concept which was very briefly presented in the *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* [59 806 (1955)] on leukocytic functions and it is now being prepared for detailed publication

If we make the assumption that the chemically mature differentiating cell produces an inhibitor of cell division then any change in the cell that leads to a shortened life span of this differentiating cell would lead to failure of production of this inhibitor This shortening of the life span may be caused by alterations in the genetic material of the cell in turn produced by ionizing radiation heredity viruses or viruslike bodies or carcinogens There seems to be incontrovertible evidence that each of these factors is a predisposing cause in some and not in other cases of cancer

We have shown [*Acta Haematol* 13 145 (1955)] that the life span of the cell is shorter in chronic granulocytic leukemia than in the normal cell It is common knowledge that you do not see the mature cell in the more acute of these tumors and you can get a change to a still shorter life span

Among the Metazoa one cell resulting from division has to go on to differentiate and die while the other remains immature to divide again The inhibitor described would act as an automatic regulator of cell number

Much evidence exists for such an inhibitor of mitosis If you scrape off a tiny bit of skin you haven't added anything—you have subtracted something but the cells underneath begin to divide more rapidly If you give blood to the Red Cross you haven't added anything but the cells in the marrow begin to divide more rapidly If you take out two-thirds of the liver in a parabiotic rat you haven't added but even the liver of the parabiont begins to show multiplication We have analogs of such short range growth regulators in the inducers and organizers of embryology

I think we should begin to look at the mature normal cell for an inhibitor of cell division and there may be inherent in the immature cell capable of division the initial potentialities of the unicellular organism that does undergo uncontrolled exponential growth if the environment is suitable

This hypothesis if correct would show that all the current concepts of cancer etiology are correct but that each of the factors—heredity ionizing radiation chemical or physical carcinogens—acts as one of the predisposing causes to a genetic change leading to loss of an enzyme system necessary for a normal life span of the differentiating cell and thus to failure of production of the specific inhibitor of logarithmic cell production produced by that differentiating cell

DR CHARLOTTE FRIEND (New York New York) In line with Dr Gross's work are some recent findings in our laboratory We have isolated a filterable agent from a Swiss mouse it is transmissible to adult mice of the same strain and induces a leukemia Dr Furth has been kind enough to look at some of the histological sections and he says it appears to be of granulocytic type This is different from Dr Gross's which appears to be of a lymphatic type

DR GEORGE W. WOOLLEY (New York New York) Some interest has been expressed in our attempts to repeat the work of Dr Gross and I might say that through

the kindness of Dr. Charlotte Friend we have had some experience with her agent also. These studies investigating the relation of cell free extracts prepared from leukemic tissues—centrifugates and filtrates—to the induction of cancer particularly leukemia in mice were started because of the interesting observations made by Gross that cell free virus like material prepared from either leukemic tissue or normal tissue from leukemic strain mice would when given to newborn mice of different susceptible strains induce leukemia and other forms of cancer. In the meantime a new and different cell free agent has been discovered by Dr. Charlotte Friend of Sloan Kettering Institute.

In general the development of leukemia or other types of tumors appeared to depend to a large extent on the preparation used and the genetics of the host receiving the preparation.

In the first study of thirty on extracts (twenty of Aka/Gs origin and eleven of C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs origin) a total of thirteen (six Aka and seven C3H) have been active in inducing leukemias, parotid gland tumors and sarcomas. The most active preparations were extracted from filtrate and red tumors rather than from spontaneous tumors. One such preparation (filtrate) has induced 4 leukemias out of 5 inoculated C3H<sub>101</sub>/Bi mice (80%) and 10 out of 17 C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs mice (59%).

Use of a supernatant which was diluted with an amount estimated to be 2:1 (two parts of supernatant to one part of saline) after 700 × g centrifugation was followed by only parotid gland tumors and sarcomas—6 and 6 respectively out of 17 injected C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs and 1 sarcoma out of 3 injected C3H/Gs mice.

Use of one Aka centrifugate was followed by 5 leukemias out of 12 injected C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs mice. Another Aka preparation was refrigerated at 4° in an ice water bath for 79 hours before use. Of the 4 C3H<sub>101</sub>/Bi mice injected with this extract 4 parotid gland tumors and 3 sarcomas resulted. No tumors have occurred in the 6 C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs mice which were injected with this extract within 48 hours after preparation.

In the entire study no leukemias have occurred in the same individual in which parotid gland tumors and sarcomas have occurred.

Two leukemias in C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs mice were the only tumors to develop in the 403 control mice other than breast tumors in the unfedered (milk factor-carrying) mice C3H/Gs and C3H/Wy. No leukemias were observed in 143 breeding C3H mice of various surnames at a mean age of 11 months nor were any leukemias observed in a group of 53 C3H mice now at a mean age of 13 months which were used as control animals in another experiment.

All types of tumors were transplantable. Tumors arising in C3H mice were transplantable to other C3H mice of the proper surname but not to Aka mice the strain of extract origin. C3H<sub>101</sub>/Gs tumors were transplantable to C3H<sub>101</sub>/Bi but not to C3H<sub>101</sub>/Hu mice.

Out of a total of 245 C3H mice of the Bittner substrains treated with extracts 45 (18.4%) developed leukemia, 10 (4.1%) developed parotid gland tumors and 10 (4.1%) developed sarcomas, an overall total of 65 (26.5%) malignant tumors. Of 84 C3H mice of other surnames 1 (1.2%) developed leukemia and none developed sarcomas or parotid tumors. Of the 188 control C3H mice of the Bittner substrains ~ (1.1%) developed leukemia but no leukemia developed in the 65 control mice of the other C3H substrains. These experiments are being continued.

Dr. Friend called my attention to the difficulty of transferring the cell free leu-

kemic agent under study by her to a foreign strain such as strain C3H. It was transmissible adult to adult in the Swiss strain its strain of origin a point we have confirmed. By means of inoculation into the newborn we have been able to transfer the agent and disease to strain C3H. Here as in the Swiss mouse it resembles granulocytic leukemia as shown by positive peroxidase reaction of the cell granules. After transfer to strain C3H it was transmissible adult to adult in this new host and also back to the adult Swiss mouse. It is evident that this latter agent differs greatly from the agent or agents discovered by Dr. Gross.

It seems to me that a fascinating area for work has been opened up.

DR ARTHUR KIRSCHBAUM (Houston, Texas). We have had experiments under way attempting to confirm the work of Dr. Gross. We obtained from Dr. Bittner the proper C3H subline and have injected newborn mice with extracts according to the methods outlined by Dr. Gross. Our series has run just about as long as Dr. Woolley's. Up to this time we have found no induced leukemias. Dr. Woolley tells me that the Bittner subline which he uses and in which he obtains positive results does not have the milk agent. Ours does. This of course could be a complicating factor.

DR GEORGE W. WOOLLEY. In the material presented 31 mice had the milk factor. Of those 31 none so far has exhibited leukemia. Many of these are of the subline C3H/Wy the susceptibility of which is unknown as far as the leukemia factors are concerned.

CHAIRMAN BIERMAN. Dr. Law, would you like to comment a bit about the C3H resistant strain? That seems to be a potent complication here.

DR L. W. LAW (Bethesda, Maryland). I am not sure it is a complication. There are probably fifteen or twenty different sublines of C3H and one would expect them to be different genetically. I think it all depends on the sample one takes. Dr. Dunn in the National Cancer Institute has found an incidence of as high as 10% lymphomas in one of the sublines of the National Cancer Institute. I believe if one keeps the animals long enough and pays as much attention to the controls as to the experimental groups one probably will get between 5 and 10%.

Since this other work has come up I might say that we also have used some of Bittner's subline without the agent. These animals are now 9 or 10 months along and we didn't start this until Dr. Gross a year or so ago found that there was a subline difference in susceptibility. We have found so far three early leukemias at an average age of 6 months in one litter. Curiously enough the mother of this litter also had leukemia at 12 months of age. These are the only positive results we have at the present time.

I would like to ask a question of Dr. Friend as to whether these so-called granulocytic leukemias grow progressively in Swiss mice. Certain strains of mice certainly have a tendency to show extramedullary myelopoiesis. Do these grow progressively in Swiss mice?

DR ROGER KLEIN (Galveston, Texas). I have a question to ask Dr. Gross. Why do you think that your so-called virus is an exogenous agent and not an endogenous factor? Graffi in his last paper in *Klinische Wochenschrift* writes that the agent of mouse leukemia seems bound to the small mitochondria but he does not conclude

between the endogenous or exogenous origin. Perhaps there is in a normal cell two kinds of cytoplasmic particulates and as Dr Osgood said a factor of inhibition and a factor of proliferation and cancer could be an escape from the mechanism of homeostasis by the loss of the factor of inhibition and the multiplication of the other factor.

DR LEONARD GROSS (Bronx, New York) When investigating an obscure disease it is very difficult to judge whether we are dealing with a virus. If we can transmit the disease by inoculating a filtered extract prepared from diseased tissues, if such an extract will lose its potency by heating, if the activity of the extract can be sedimented by ultracentrifugation, if the same disease can be reproduced in a susceptible animal by inoculating such an extract, and then if again from the induced disease another extract can be prepared which in turn will reproduce the same disease in another host, then we may be justified to assume that we are dealing with a transmissible, filterable virus.

The mouse leukemia agent is filterable, thermolabile, can be sedimented in an ultracentrifuge, and can be passed from one host to another. It apparently is a virus. The fact that the same filtered leukemic extract inoculated into newborn mice can induce leukemia or parotid tumors and/or soft tissue sarcomas could be explained by assuming that the extract contained a single agent able to cause different neoplasms. I am inclined to feel, however, that we are dealing with a mixture of three or more related but individually distinct oncogenic agents. The presence of several oncogenic agents in the leukemic host may not be purely coincidental. A synergistic action may be involved. Should it be possible to separate such agents and inoculate them individually, it may then be difficult, if at all possible, to induce leukemia. There are so many unknowns at this time that it is difficult to decide what we are dealing with until more facts become available.

DR CHARLOTTE FRIEND In answer to Dr Law's question on myeloid metaplasia, this agent is transmissible and myeloid metaplasia has never been proved to be transmissible; also our virus results in a fatal disease.





## Environmental Factors in Human Leukemia

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There are only three agents or agencies which have been shown to affect the incidence of human leukemia. They are heredity, benzol, and ionizing radiations, and the evidence for heredity and benzol is not yet such as to convince a sceptic. In what follows, therefore, I shall have to say rather more about plans for collecting evidence than about established facts.

The revival of interest in research on leukemia in man is due partly to the introduction of new therapeutic agents which can arrest the course of the disease. It is also due, however, to the apparent rise in incidence of leukemia and the evidence that cases are occurring as a result of exposure to ionizing radiations. Before taking up these points, however, I ought to say something about classification.

We cannot assume that the etiological factors will be the same for all types of leukemia. The difference in the age and sex incidence of lymphatic and myeloid leukemias is so striking that it seems almost certain that they differ in causation. Lymphatic leukemia is a disease of the extremes of life, but more particularly of old age. It is also a disease of males. Myeloid leukemia is a disease of the middle span of life, and it affects males and females equally. The percentage of myeloid forms in leukemia occurring after irradiation is much higher than in spontaneous leukemia in man. Some people believe that acute and chronic leukemia are different diseases, and certainly their response to treatment is very different. It is therefore certain that we need precise classification in studies of hereditary and environmental factors in leukemia. Hematologists will usually base their diagnoses on the definitions given by the Committee for Clarification of the Nomenclature of Cells and

Diseases of Blood Forming Organs (4) but these are too detailed for many statistical purposes

The two parameters which must always be used in classifying leukemias as each of them is important are the acuteness of the disease process and the type of cell affected. The International List of Causes of Death had hitherto concentrated too exclusively on cell type. At the Seventh Revision of the International List which took place in 1955 there was a rearrangement of the heading 204 which deals with leukemia and the subdivisions are now as follows

204 0—Lymphatic leukemia

204 1—Myeloid leukemia

204 2—Monocytic leukemia

204 3—Acute leukemia (*this will include acute leukemia unqualified and any condition in 204 0 and 204 1 if specified as acute but acute monocytic leukemia will stay in 204 2*)

204 4—Other and unspecified leukemias

The effect of this is that in 204 0 and 204 1 one should place only the chronic forms of lymphatic and myeloid leukemias and in 204 3 all the acute leukemias irrespective of reputed cell type with the exception of monocytic leukemia. This classification is therefore still not quite so detailed as some of us would like. As far as the United Kingdom is concerned the General Register Office is able to give us the number of acute myeloid (myeloblastic) and lymphoid (lymphoblastic) leukemias as further breakdowns of 204 3. Although there are difficulties in identifying the type of cell in acute leukemia most hematologists believe that the correct diagnosis can be made in 80% of cases.

Let us turn now to the figures for the incidence of leukemia. The rate of increase of leukemia as a recorded cause of death has been greater than that of any other disease except lung cancer and coronary thrombosis. The last figures published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (11) show a rise from 18 to 47 per 100 000 in their policy holders between 1930 and 1951. My colleague David Hewitt last year published an analysis of the incidence of deaths attributed to leukemia in England and Wales (10) and he found that in 1953 the incidence was more than two and one half times as high as in 1931. As between different countries the incidence follows the order United States and Denmark > England, Wales and Scotland > Western Germany and Ireland. As between different regions of England it is higher in the South than in the North; the South of England has for many years been more prosperous than the North. As between economic strata it is higher in the rich than the poor. As between races it is higher in the

white than the nonwhite. In all five of these contrasts the sexes have been affected to an approximately equal extent, and the oldest age group has been affected more than any other. The increase is in lymphatic leukemia. It is particularly important to emphasize this because the etiological factors we recognize—benzol and ionizing radiations—produce myeloid leukemia.

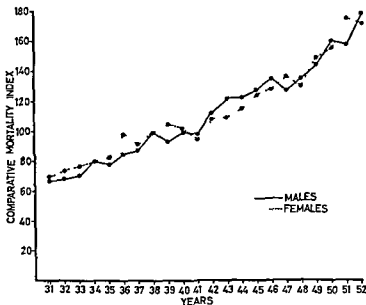


FIG. 1. Leukemia. Course of comparative mortality index for males and females in England and Wales from 1931 through 1952 (1938 = 100). Data collected by Hewitt (10).

The question at once arises whether these changes reflect merely the more frequent detection of the condition. In other words would not many of these patients have died under a different diagnosis in the past? I can well remember one of the patients I had as a student who died with the diagnosis of oral sepsis and who was probably suffering from monocytic leukemia. This interpretation is supported by the fact that both in the United States and in Great Britain the recorded death rate is highest in those groups of the population which presumably have access to the best medical facilities. Because there is this doubt studies of the local variations of incidence within the United Kingdom or attempts to correlate them with surveys of the radioactivity of the soil and water are probably premature. On the other hand it is unfortunate

that we do not know more about the geographical pathology of the disease in the broader sense. Reliable figures for the incidence of the different types of leukemia at different ages in the tropics and subtropics would be of much interest. In Japan and in the indigenous population of North and South Africa there appears to be a notable deficiency of chronic lymphatic leukemia which is not explained by the different age

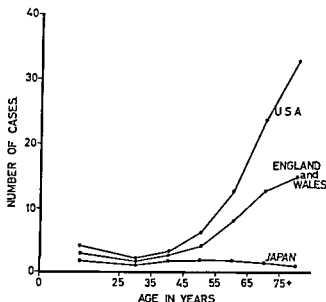


FIG. 2. Deaths from leukemia per 100 000 in successive age groups in the United States, England and Wales and Japan in 1952.

structure of the populations. Figure 2 charts the deaths from leukemia per 100 000 of the population taken from the Annual Epidemiological and Vital Statistics of the World Health Organisation (18). The disparity is in the later age groups and in chronic lymphatic leukemia.

We need not waste time discussing whether the increase in leukemia in Western Europe and North America is apparent or real because that is something time itself will show. The improvement in the health services in Great Britain has been so widespread and uniform that it is becoming increasingly difficult for anyone to die with symptoms of anemia without having an expert blood count. Let us assume for a moment that there has been a real increase. Men and women have been equally affected so that the cause is unlikely to be smoking, cosmetics or occupation. Cohort analysis—that is to say analysis of people according to the year in which they were born—indicates that the environ-

mental factors responsible for this increase must have been operating for at least twenty five years. This suggests that we cannot inculcate the sulfonamides or the antibiotics. If the social class difference is a real one possible causes might be different dietary habits and greater exposure to diagnostic x rays.

Any analysis of possible environmental factors in leukemia is clearly going to meet formidable difficulties even if we limit it to factors which have come into action since 1870. I have always been impressed by Custers (7) demonstration of the role of atabrine in the production of aplastic anemia. Such an effect would never have been revealed without a war to provide the appropriate populations of large bodies of troops with complete medical and statistical services. In group I i.e. troops not taking atabrine the incidence of aplastic anemia was 0.04 and 0.18 per 100 000 troops per 6 month period. In group II troops taking atabrine the incidence showed a precipitous rise from 0.66 to 2.84 cases per 100 000 per half year. I say precipitous but let us think for a moment of the 99 997 not affected.

Aplastic anemia is related to leukemia and occasionally precedes it (Bernard and Boron 1a Dreyfus and Bessis 8). Etiological factors in leukemia may therefore be of the same degree of effectiveness as atabrine in aplastic anemia. Even with the most massive irradiation compatible with survival the incidence of leukemia in man does not seem to be higher than 1 in 100. It is therefore not surprising that the scrutiny of hospital records of cases of leukemia such as Revol *et al* (15) carried out at Lyons has not revealed any precise etiological factors. We have felt that the retrospective study of large numbers of case notes is not likely to be rewarding. To discover anything of significance it seems necessary to have a planned investigation of a large group of cases with appropriately matched controls.

The curious distribution of deaths from leukemia in childhood seems to offer a promising salient for attack on the etiological factors. All reliable statistics of the incidence of leukemia show a moderate elevation in the first two years of life then an abrupt rise with the highest incidence in the third and fourth years. The curve falls steeply in the next three years and there is a slower progressive fall throughout the latter half of childhood. Cooke (5) who was one of the first to draw attention to this phenomenon thought that the curve suggested that infection played a part in the initiation of leukemia. It is noteworthy that most of the 1500 cases which he assembled must have occurred before the introduction of the sulfonamide drugs and therefore were not attributable to chemotherapy. The life history of the child is short and

less confusing than that of the adult and if there are recognizable environmental factors in leukemia they may appear more clearly in children where they have not been overlaid by the other events and accidents of life. It is just possible that we might light on etiological factors comparable with German measles during the mother's pregnancy

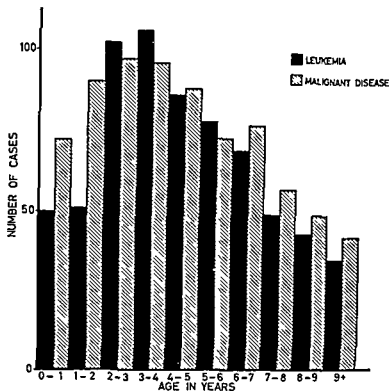


FIG 3 Ages at death of all children in England and Wales dying from leukemia and malignant disease in 1953 1954 and through June 1955

in children with congenital ocular defects or prematurity and oxygen therapy in retrolental fibroplasia

The curve of the age incidence of leukemia in childhood is not so peculiar to leukemia as is sometimes believed other forms of neoplastic disease in childhood have a similar age incidence. In England it was felt that in a study of environmental factors in leukemia in childhood the children with leukemia should be compared not only with normal children but also with children with other forms of malignant disease. We have concentrated our attention on the age group under 10. My

colleague Dr Alice Stewart, and her co workers in the Social Medicine Unit at Oxford have received from the General Registry Office the names and addresses of all children under the age of 10 dying from leukemia and malignant disease during the years 1953 1954 and up to June 1955. These amount to 670 cases of leukemia and 743 cases of malignant disease. The age distributions are charted in Fig. 3 and are seen to be closely alike.

Dr Stewart is making arrangements to collect an equal number of controls matched for age sex and locality. The parents of all the children dying of leukemia and malignant disease and all the 1413 controls will be interviewed and a printed questionnaire will be completed. The main subjects of inquiry are the locality birth order previous medical history exposure to radiation food habits and home activities of the child. Similar details will be obtained about the parents and a family history will be taken. A brief summary of the fatal illness will also be made including treatment remissions and duration of survival. A pilot study has already shown that it is possible to identify the cases and controls and to interview the parents without distress or difficulty. This survey by Dr Stewart and her co workers should produce information of unique value on hereditary and environmental factors in the etiology of acute leukemia and on the natural history of the disease.

The data on inheritance will be particularly valuable as opinions are at present so diverse. Many examples of the familial occurrence of leukemia have been described and Anderson (1) has reported a remarkable family in which 5 out of the 8 children developed leukemia between the ages of 5 and 8. A few cases have also been described in twins (Cooke 6). It is the exceptional cases however which are likely to be reported and Morganti and Cresseri (13) as a result of a recent study say that any hereditary factor is negligible. On the other hand Videbaek (16) who analyzed the family histories of 209 patients with leukemia and a corresponding number of controls concluded that the chance of a relative of a patient with leukemia getting leukemia was 1 in 250 as compared with 1 in 4000 of the control population. What was inherited was a tendency to leukemia in general and not to a particular type of leukemia.

In addition the incidence of malignant disease as a whole was higher in the relatives of patients with leukemia than in those of the controls. Videbaek's work has been much criticized largely because it goes against the grain of the experience of most of us. Of 81 hematologists consulted by Guasch (9) 53 had had no example of familial leukemia among their own patients. The total number of cases of leukemia was



8586 of which 19 or 1 in 452 were consanguineous. This is the sort of question which is bound to be decided sooner or later as the statistics of world health progressively improve.

Our project for the study of etiological factors in the leukemia of childhood is still in its initial stage and it may well be that no convincing information will be forthcoming. We are on more certain ground when we turn to the evidence for the leukemogenic effect of ionizing irradiations. The measurement of rads and roentgens of integral doses and megagram roentgens is a job for the physicist and I shall mention only a few figures for those who are as inexpert as I. The total normal background radiation over a generation in man amounts to about 3 roentgens (Burch and Spiers 3). Workers with atomic energy are permitted an aggregate exposure of 15 to 30 roentgens a year. The ordinary chest film exposes the patient to only a fraction of a roentgen and even with tomography the total exposure is small if simple filters are used. On the other hand it has been calculated that a gastrointestinal examination exposes the patient to 15 roentgens a minute.

Whatever the risk to the patient there can be no doubt about the risk to the operator. Even though a gown and gloves are worn the upper part of the thorax and the head and neck are unprotected. This is probably the reason why at all ages the risk of dying from leukemia is three times the normal in physicians. Leukemia is eight to nine times as common in radiologists as in other physicians and dermatologists who use x rays and radium in treatment have an increased mortality. The high mortality from leukemia in the profession as a whole is not explained by the particular occupational risk of radiologists and dermatologists but suggests that all doctors in their training and work come into contact with harmful amounts of ionizing radiations. The minimum time for the development of the disease in medical practitioners is less than five years (Peller and Pick 14).

These figures for the incidence of leukemia in the medical profession have been obtained by somewhat imperfect statistical techniques. The figures for the incidence of leukemia in the survivors of the atomic bombs which were dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945 are better documented. Up to the end of 1954 92 cases of leukemia had been recognized (Moloney 12). In Hiroshima where it was possible to relate the development of leukemia to the distance from the hypocenter of the explosion and the severity of the radiation complaints the incidence of leukemia was 1 in 172 in the severely irradiated 1 in 3223 in those within 2500 meters of the hypocenter who were lightly irradiated or not irradiated and 1 in 12 912 in those who were more than

2500 meters from the hypocenter. The peak incidence of leukemia was in 1950, 1951 and 1952 and there was a sharp decline in 1953. Of the 92 cases, 39 were chronic myeloid leukemia and only 1 was chronic lymphatic leukemia. The remainder were acute and subacute leukemias with the myelogenous form again predominating though not to the same extent. These of course are interim data and it would be premature to conclude that the full effect of the irradiation has yet been seen or that cases of chronic lymphatic leukemia will not appear at a later date.

The third piece of evidence of the leukemogenic effect of ionizing radiations is the incidence of leukemia in patients treated by radiotherapy. Most of the patients so treated have malignant disease and do not live long or else the dosage is small. An exception is ankylosing spondylitis where a dose of 2000 roentgens measured on the skin is given to each of four fields (Windeyer 17). Ankylosing spondylitis is usually called rheumatoid arthritis of the spine in the United States though in fact it shows some clinical and serological differences from rheumatoid arthritis. Brown and Abbatt (2) have collected information from all the radiotherapy centers in England, Wales and Scotland and have analyzed the records of 9384 patients with ankylosing spondylitis who were treated by radiotherapy between 1940 and 1954. At the time of their publication they had obtained details of 25 patients who had developed leukemia. Acute leukemia was much commoner than chronic and the myeloid was the most common cytological type, a distribution closely comparable with what was found at Nagasaki and Hiroshima. The incubation period was also similar, being most often about five to seven years. The observed deaths from leukemia were at least five times and possibly as many as ten times the expected number of such deaths. The discrepancy was unlikely to be explained by an unusual susceptibility of patients with ankylosing spondylitis to the development of leukemia. The incidence of leukemia was twice as common in those having two or more courses of treatment as in those having one, which suggests that the radiation is the deciding factor. This survey is continuing. It has been expanded and made more complete. It is not yet finished and the results are confidential but it is likely to demonstrate with statistical certainty the connection between leukemia and exposure to ionizing radiations.

In summary then it has been proved that ionizing radiations can produce leukemia in man. Nevertheless they do not seem to produce chronic lymphatic leukemia which is the main cause of the increased incidence of leukemia in recent years and in the more socially advanced

areas. We must suspend judgment as to whether leukemia is actually increasing though it is quite certain that it is being diagnosed and recognized more frequently. If we are to find anything about hereditary and environmental factors in human leukemia we must be prepared to work with larger populations and with higher standards of diagnosis than have been available to clinicians and epidemiologists up to the present time.

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Part III

Radiation Biology of Leukocytes

Chairman

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City of Hope Medical Center

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## Radiation Injury and Regeneration in Lymphoid Tissues<sup>1</sup>

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The thymus is important in the genesis of lymphosarcoma and lymphatic leukemia in the mouse (7-13). It has previously been found that such tumors are induced in significantly greater yield in strain C57BL mice when total body irradiation is given in multiple fractional doses spaced several days apart than when given daily or as a single dose (9). The experiments reported herein were undertaken to investigate the possibility that the pattern of injury and/or repair of the thymus after periodic irradiation differs in some characteristic way from that after daily fractionated treatment or single exposure. Parallel observations were made on the superficial lymph nodes and spleen.

Several groups have studied the sequence of events in acute radiation injury of the thymus and spleen, particularly after single whole body x-ray exposures (1, 3, 8, 14). Under suitably controlled conditions, decrease in thymic or splenic weight may be used as a biological dosimeter for the estimation of the comparative effectiveness of dissimilar types of radiations (5, 6). Regeneration of irradiated lymphoid tissues has received less attention, however (4), and there is little published information on their response to fractionated and intermittent doses of x-irradiation (16).

### Experimental Procedure

Strain C57BL mice of both sexes, aged  $33 \pm 3$  days, were carefully randomized and allotted to the appropriate number of groups in each experiment. In our initial experiment the numbers of males and females

<sup>1</sup> These studies were supported by grants in aid from the National Cancer Institute, the U. S. Public Health Service, and the Jane Coffin Childs Memorial Fund for Medical Research.

per group varied. Thymic weight tends to be somewhat greater in females than males of this strain however (12). In later experiments therefore equal numbers of males and females were used. Groups of 4 to 6 mice were designated for sacrifice at each of a series of time intervals during and after irradiation. Total body x ray exposure was given to batches of 4 to 8 mice in a shallow perforated Lucite cylinder. Physical factors of irradiation were 120 kvp, 9 ma, 0.25 mm Cu + 1.0 mm Al added filter, 30 cm mouse target distance, 32 r/min. In experiment

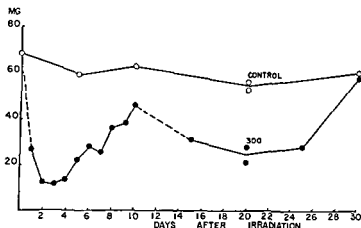


FIG. 1. Mean wet weight of the thymus gland after 300 r of total body irradiation to C57BL mice.

In experiment 1 a single total body dose of 300 r was delivered. In experiment 2 total body irradiation was given to three series of animals according to the following schedules: series A received a single dose of 476 r; series B four doses of 119 r each on successive days; and series C four doses of 119 r each at 4 day intervals. Additional randomized animals from the same litters were maintained untreated as age controls.

At the predetermined time intervals groups of animals were sacrificed with ether, weighed, and the thymus, spleen, and pooled superficial (usually two axillary and two inguinal) lymph nodes were excised carefully, dissected free of connective tissue and fat, weighed in the fresh state on a torsion balance, and fixed in Bouin's fluid. The tissues of two males and two females per group were sectioned and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for histologic study. In the groups sacrificed 70 days or more after irradiation lymphoid tumors were encountered; in all such instances more complete autopsies were performed and

other viscera in addition to the lymphoid tissues were preserved for microscopic examination

### Results

Mean wet weights of the thymus spleen and pooled superficial lymph nodes after a single dose of 300 r are presented graphically in Figs 1 to 3

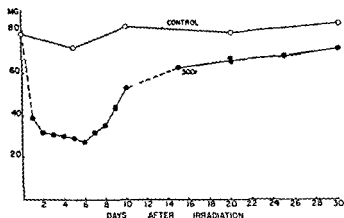


FIG 2 Mean wet weight of the spleen after 300 r of total body irradiation to C57BL mice

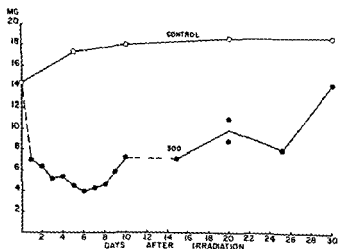


FIG 3 Mean wet weight of the superficial lymph nodes (two axillary two inguinal) after 300 r of total body irradiation to C57BL mice



Thymic weight falls precipitously reaching its lowest point 2 to 3 days after exposure at this dose level. In contrast spleen and lymph node weights fall rapidly on the first day and more slowly thereafter passing through a minimum on days 5 to 6. Recovery of thymic weight also differs from that for spleen and lymph nodes. The thymus increases in weight rapidly and steadily through the tenth day only to suffer a second involutional response between the tenth and fifteenth day persisting to day 20 with a renewed climb toward normal levels thereafter. Spleen weight recovers steadily without a secondary phase of depletion and is essentially normal by day 20. Lymph node recovery is indolent and sluggish requiring about 30 to 40 days to return to normal levels after 300 r.

In the fractional dose study (experiment 2) a generally similar thymic weight response was observed in both male and female mice as may be seen in Figs. 4 and 5. The points have been plotted on a staggered basis such that the last day of irradiation coincides for all three series. Initial injury was perhaps slightly greater after a single dose of 476 r than with daily or intermittent fractionated treatment. There was again a distinct secondary drop in thymic weight most pronounced in series B and C beginning 8 to 10 days after the last x-ray dose. Sustained recovery resumed again at about day 25 and was complete in terms of thymic weight about 40 to 50 days after irradiation in all series. High values in series C at later intervals are due to the more frequent occurrence of tumors in these mice as described below.

Splenic weight fell somewhat more sluggishly than thymic weight with the minimum occurring 1 to 2 days later. There is rapid regeneration after the eighth day with a dramatic rise to approximately twice normal levels at about 14 days after treatment. Spleen weight then tends to settle back to the control level and remain there without the secondary drop which characterizes thymic weight response to irradiation. There was no remarkable difference in the splenic weight curves of the three treated series. Lymph node weight also decreases slightly more slowly than that of thymus and then recovers quite slowly with little tendency to "overshoot" the control level during regeneration. The lymph node weight curves of the three series were not considered to differ significantly.

An interesting statistical phenomenon was noted during the repair phase. Lymphoid tissue weights tended to be tightly clustered with small standard errors during the phase of injury. Almost immediately thereafter some weights began to bounce upward again signaling the onset of regeneration but other animals from the same groups appeared

moribund and exhibited lymphoid tissue weights even lower than those noted during the phase of injury. The group arithmetic means in such instances were associated with such large standard errors as to be meaningless. It appeared that these groups had segregated into two (or more) populations: one capable of survival and hematopoietic regeneration, the other(s) incapable of recovery and apparently on the verge of death at the time of sacrifice.

Body weight exhibited no close relationship to the lymphoid tissue weight responses except in the qualitative sense that it decreased slightly to moderately during the first 5 to 8 days after irradiation and then weight gain resumed. The moribund animals, however, had all lost an extreme amount of weight and were obviously emaciated.

The initial histological appearance of the irradiated thymus, spleen and lymph nodes was generally consistent with previously published descriptions (14). Within 24 hours after irradiation most of the thymocytes exhibited pyknosis. Cellular debris was abundant and macrophages were numerous. Damage was more severe in the cortex than in the medulla, resulting in the well known reversal appearance (Fig 6A and Figs 7A-B). By 2 days after irradiation the cellular debris had been almost entirely removed from the cortex by macrophages (Fig 7C). On the third or fourth day, depending on dose, repopulation of the cortex by large immature lymphoid cells began quite abruptly, apparently by proliferation and subsequent differentiation from large radioresistant nonlymphoid subcapsular cells (Fig 6B and Fig 7D-E). In the next several days the large lymphocytes were replaced apparently through a stepwise process of differentiation by progressively smaller, more mature lymphocytes (Fig 7E-H). During this period mitotic figures were initially abundant and then became gradually sparse. By day 15 to 20 cortical and medullary architecture had been restored almost to normal, though the thymic lobes were still small (Fig 6D). Thereafter the only evident change consisted in an increase in overall dimensions of the lobes.

During this period two abnormalities were often noted. The boundary between the cortex and medulla was often poorly defined and in some instances the lymphocytes did not go through the sequence of differentiation and maturation cited above. Instead, much or all of the cortex remained populated with cells which had a greater diameter, more abundant rather basophilic cytoplasm and a somewhat paler nucleus in which the chromatin was less densely matted and more vesicular than that of the normal thymocyte nucleus (Fig 8A). The resemblance between these immature lymphoid cells and those of early lymphoid

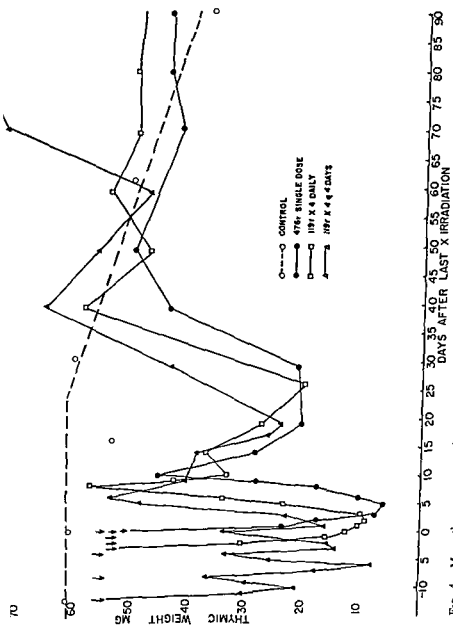


FIG. 4. Mean thymic wet weight response of female C57BL mice during phases of injury and regeneration after 476 r of total body irradiation given as a single dose or in four equal fractions either daily or intermittently every 4 days. Anomalous low weights encountered during the regenerative period in obviously moribund mice have been omitted.

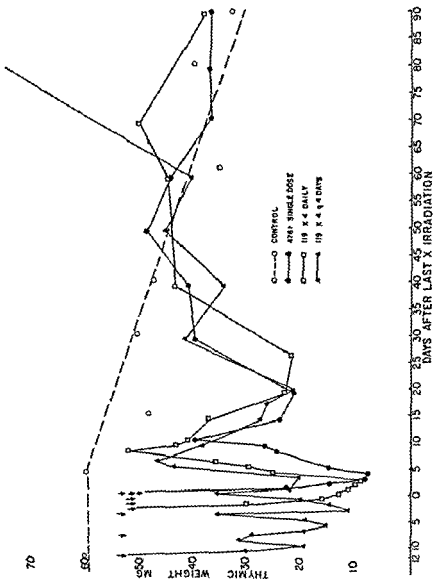


FIG. 5 Same as Fig. 4 for male C57BL mice. Irradiation begins 3 to 4 weeks earlier in the normal males of this strain than in the females. The responses are otherwise similar.

t tumors was highly suggestive particularly since mitotic figures remained plentiful in these instances. A more detailed study of this apparent impairment of differentiation and of its relation to the neoplastic transformation is being made in collaboration with Dr William Carnes (2).

Thymic lymphoid tumors were encountered in some group sacrificed

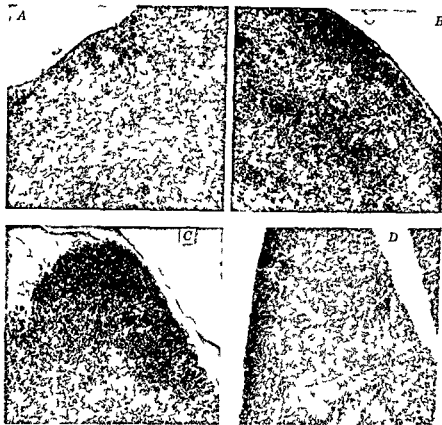


FIG. 6. Injury and repair in the thymus after 300 r. At 24 hours (A) the cortex has been largely emptied of small lymphocytes with pyknotic cells and nuclear debris accumulating in subcapsular macrophages. By contrast an appreciable number of small lymphocytes persist in the medulla yielding a reversal of the usual staining intensity of the cortical and medullary zones. By the third day (B) the necrotic debris has disappeared and a layer of large cells has begun to proliferate just beneath the capsule. On the fourth (occasionally fifth) day (C) these cells have been transformed into immature large lymphocytes filling the entire cortex with an irregular boundary between cortex and medulla. Pyknosis is often seen in the medulla at this stage. By the fifteenth day the cortical lymphocytes have differentiated to mature small forms and the architecture of cortex and medulla is almost normal again (Hematoxylin and eosin  $\times 110$ ).

70 days or more after irradiation (Table I). There was a striking difference in the pooled tumor incidence of the three series with a much greater yield of tumors in series C which had received 4 doses of 119 r each at 4 day intervals. The differences are slightly exaggerated because

TABLE I  
LYMPHOID TUMORS ENCOUNTERED AT SERIAL SACRIFICE OF C57BL MICE RECEIVING THE SAME TOTAL X RAY DOSE WITH FRACTIONATION AND PERIODICITY VARIED

Time of sacrifice days after last x ray	Series A	Series B	Series C
70	—	1/9	8/10
80	1/10	1/9	5/10
90	0/12	0/10	7/10
100	1/10	1/10	4/10
	—	—	—
Total	2/32 (6%)	3/37 (8%)	24/38 (63%)

Numerator = number of mice with lymphoid tumors denominator = number sacrificed

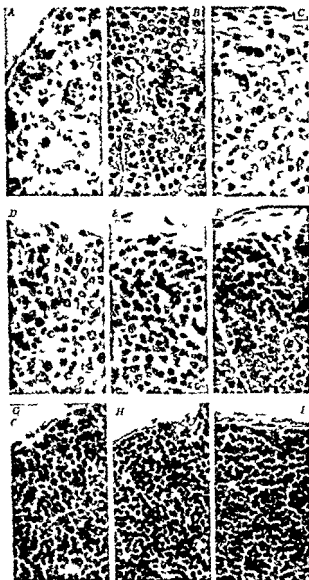
the anticipated latent periods for tumors arising in mice treated as in series A and B are greater than for series C.

### Discussion

Confirming our earlier observations (9) periodic total body irradiation of C57BL mice at 4 day intervals elicited a much greater number of thymic lymphomas in animals sacrificed at 70 to 100 days than an equal dose given either on a daily fractionated sequence or as a single exposure. The pattern of thymic weight response and the histological appearance during injury and regeneration in the irradiated thymus glands were essentially the same however after each of these schedules of irradiation. Indeed, the degree of thymic injury was mildest, and the capacity for regeneration perhaps greatest in the intermittently irradiated animals. Thus there is no apparent correlation between the severity of thymic radiation injury and subsequent lymphoid tumor yield. This conclusion is consistent with other evidence (8, 11) that these tumors arise by an indirect induction mechanism. The lack of correlation may of course be attributable to the criteria employed since thymic weight and histology are admittedly crude indices of radiation injury.

The weight curve of the irradiated thymus is nonetheless of interest particularly since it appears to differ distinctively from that of other irradiated lymphoid tissues. In contrast to the slow recovery of lymph

FIG 7 Injury and repair in the thymus after 300 r. Nuclear debris chokes the cortical macrophages at 24 hours (A) contrasting with the persistence of some small lymphocytes and absence of debris in the medulla (B). The debris is gone at 48 hours (C) leaving the cortex strikingly empty of lymphoid cells. Surviving large epithelial reticular (?) cells beneath the capsule begin to proliferate on the third day (D) and then apparently transform into large immature lymphocytes on the fourth and fifth days (E and F). These immature cells then differentiate into progressively smaller more mature lymphocytes (G day 7). Mitotic figures are numerous at about 4 to 7 days and then decrease in frequency. By day 15 (H) the cortex is repopulated by small lymphocytes and again closely resembles the normal thymic cortex (T). (Hematoxylin and eosin  $\times 550$ )





node weight thymic weight rebounds vigorously to an abortive peak at about 9 to 15 days after irradiation only to fall sharply again for about 10 days. There is then a more gradual but sustained recovery which may require as long as 70 to 80 days to reach the control baseline. The secondary sharp decrease in weight is not associated with histological evidence of a new wave of cellular radiation damage. It appears to be

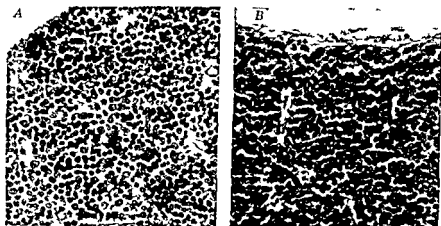


FIG. 8. In occasional instances regeneration of the thymic cortex after irradiation proceeds through the stage of repopulation by immature lymphocytes but these fail to undergo further differentiation. Here (A) large densely packed slightly hexagonal lymphocytes fill the cortex 30 days after 300 r and mitotic figures remain numerous. (B) normal thymic cortex for comparison. (Hematoxylin and eosin  $\times 550$ )

a reasonably reproducible phenomenon in several experiments in this laboratory and is to be found in the data of an earlier study by Brecher *et al* (1) although not explicitly discussed in their report. The explanation for this bizarre oscillation must await further experimental study. It is interesting however that no secondary involutional phase occurs when thymic regeneration is promoted by spleen or thigh shielding or bone marrow injection (10).

### Summary

Strain C57BL mice of both sexes were given single or fractionated doses of total body x irradiation. The irradiated mice and their untreated age controls were then sacrificed at a series of time intervals extending to 100 days after treatment. The weights of the thymus, spleen and pooled superficial lymph nodes were measured and histological examination of these tissues was made.

Lymphoid tumors were encountered in the thymus glands of groups sacrificed 70 or more days after irradiation. Confirming an earlier report (9) the incidence of such tumors was much greater in mice given fractionated doses at 4 day intervals (63%) than in those receiving a single exposure (6%) or daily fractionated treatment (8%). No comparable difference in the form of the thymic weight curve in relation to technique of irradiation was observed however and the histologic changes in the three series were essentially similar. The histological sequence of events during radiation induced thymic involution and regeneration is described and illustrated.

A curious and apparently characteristic aspect of the postirradiation thymic weight curve was noted. Subsequent to the well known dramatic involution which occurs within the first few days there was a sharp rebound toward normal levels followed at about 15 to 20 days after treatment by a second fall to weight levels almost as low as those immediately after irradiation. This unexplained secondary fall was not observed in the weight curves of the irradiated spleen or superficial lymph nodes. Ultimately there was a more gradual but sustained recovery of thymic weight which required as long as 70 to 80 days to reach control levels.

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## Cytocidal Action of X Rays on Lymphocytes According to Time Lapse Cinemicrography and Unstained Cell Counts

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As radiation is an important factor in modern life we want to know as much as we can about its effect on biological systems. But there is another reason for using x rays in research. X rays are a wonderfully delicate tool that can do a better dissection of a cell than Chambers ever dreamed of. If we are going to use x rays as a cytologic tool it is important to keep it delicate i.e. to keep the dosage low. What I have to say in regard to radiation applies only to relatively low dosages 50 to 1000 r.

Let us start with those findings which have been accepted by workers in the field. First all workers agree that x rays in small doses kill lymphocytes. This fact was suspected in animal studies in view of the known radiosensitivity of lymphocytes. The fact was demonstrated *in vitro* by the method of unstained cell counts. In this method a suspension of lymphocytes is prepared usually from the thymus of the rat or rabbit. When eosin or safranin is added to this suspension nearly all the cells are unstained because living cells are impermeable to the dye. An occasional cell is stained and these are considered dead cells. The living cells can then be counted in an ordinary hemocytometer. When the suspension is radiated with 1000 r and incubated at 37° nearly all the cells are seen to be dead and are stained readily with eosin. An occasional cell is still resistant to staining and these unstained cells are usually seen to be cells other than lymphocytes. By a periodic counting of radiated and nonradiated cells survival curves can be obtained. By this method it can be said that the normal lymphocyte survives on the average about 22 hours, the lymphocytes radiated with 140 r survive only 11 hours and after 1000 r the cells survive only 6 hours (10).

The finding that x rays kill lymphocytes is in accord with the reports of many workers. Patt *et al* (8) proved it by unstained cell counts. Trowell (12) showed it in tissue culture by counting the number of pyknotic cells in histologic preparations. Other workers have shown the same thing *in vivo*. Dougherty and White (2) found that x rays caused the regression of lymphoid tissues even in adrenalectomized rats. Ross *et al* (9) collected the cells from the thoracic duct in rats and dogs and found that the lymphocytes start to degenerate 3 hours after radiation of the animals.

It may be concluded that x rays in small doses kill lymphocytes both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

The next fact that seems to be accepted is that the death of the irradiated lymphocyte is due to or is associated with the development of intranuclear vacuoles. This is most dramatically demonstrated by means of time lapse cinemicrography (11). A suspension of rabbit lymphocytes was irradiated with 1000 r *in vitro* and photographed during incubation. Photographic prints made from the cinemicrographic film showed that most lymphocytes appear normal 3 hours after irradiation. The nuclei of the cells have large dark chromatin masses and some cells in the projected film are in ameboid motion. At irregular intervals individual cells develop small intranuclear vacuoles although the rest of the nucleus still appears to be normal in structure and the cell itself may still be in ameboid motion in the projected film. A few minutes after the development of the intranuclear vacuole the nucleus and then the cell as a whole becomes irregular in shape. In the projected film the cell and the nucleus are seen to change shape rapidly with the development of multiple lobules. The nucleus also develops lobules which may separate from each other forming two or more nuclear masses. The original small vacuole meanwhile has enlarged rapidly and the chromatin has been pushed peripherally forming a thin chromatin ring. With the continued enlargement of the vacuole the chromatin ring breaks and forms a horseshoe shaped mass then a crescent and finally a dark round chromatin mass. The cell usually has two or more lobules. Each lobule contains a part of the nucleus with an intranuclear vacuole and a separate chromatin ring and each ring ruptures giving rise to a small dark chromatin mass. In this way the cell ultimately develops a fragmented pyknotic nucleus.

I first saw these abnormal degenerating cells while making unstained cell counts of irradiated lymphocytes. Cells with vacuolated nuclei in irradiated animals were however described as early as 1907 by Warthin (14). More recently Ross *et al* (9) described vacuoles in the lympho-

cytes that they collected from the thoracic duct of irradiated animals Warren *et al* (13) demonstrated intranuclear vacuoles in irradiated tissue which were fixed by the modern techniques of freezing and drying.

The next finding which I wish to report has not as yet been confirmed. Normal nonirradiated lymphocytes were studied by time lapse cine micrography. It was surprising to find that they also develop intranuclear vacuoles and lobules. Morphologically the changes are the same in the irradiated and nonirradiated cells although the rates of death are quite different. Therefore I prefer to say that x rays accelerate the rate of death rather than that they kill lymphocytes.

The findings can be summarized by the following biological equations



The normal lymphocyte is represented by *Ln*. After irradiation the cell is morphologically the same but physiologically altered and is represented by *Lx*. This altered cell on incubation at 37° soon develops into a cell *Lv* with an early intranuclear vacuole and finally into a cell *Lp* with a pyknotic nucleus.

The nonirradiated lymphocyte also develops a vacuolated and then a pyknotic nucleus. The vacuolated cells in the irradiated and the nonirradiated suspension seem to be similar and both are therefore given the same symbol of *Lv*. In the same way *Lp* is used to represent the pyknotic cell both in the irradiated and the nonirradiated suspension.

The biological equations can be studied as if they were chemical equations. It is necessary to study the properties of each component the rates of each reaction and the effect of various reagents on the rates of reaction.

The normal cell *Ln* and the cell immediately after irradiation *Lx* have nuclei which are filled with small bright stationary granules according to darkfield microscopy. Both cells are viable as seen by their resistance to staining with eosin by their rhythmic movements and by occasional ameboid movement in time lapse cinemicrography.

The vacuolated cell *Lv* resists staining with eosin and as far as this criterion is concerned the cell may be considered viable. The ring surrounding the intranuclear vacuole stained with Feulgen stain and is evidently derived from chromatin material. The vacuole itself however failed to stain with any of the histochemical stains used. With darkfield illumination the vacuole appears dark and the ring bright.

The pyknotic cell *Lp* owing to irradiation or normal death, is of course definitely dead and takes the eosin stain. The chief characteristic of the nucleus is its uniformity in appearance with phase microscopy and

with stains. The nucleus is stained by Feulgen's method. With dark field microscopy it is found to be optically empty. Furthermore on pressure it can be expressed from the cell in small drops. On centrifugation the pyknotic nuclei of two or more cells fuse to form one dark vacuole. The pyknotic nucleus seems then to be a viscid structureless fluid which is derived from the chromatin material of the original nucleus.

Now we can proceed to the quantitative aspects of the various reactions. The rapidity of the change produced by irradiation from a normal lymphocyte to a physiologically altered cell ( $L_n \rightarrow L_x$ ) cannot be determined directly but from other evidence it would seem that this reaction is rapid and occurs during the process of irradiation and for a few minutes afterward.

The onset of vacuolization can be determined directly by time lapse cinemicrography or indirectly by the method of unstained cell counts. After 1000 r the reaction  $L_x \rightarrow L_v$  takes on the average about 57 hours and after 140 r about 107 hours. These durations represent medians as individual irradiated cells may develop vacuoles within an hour after irradiation and other cells may remain normal for many hours.

The period of lobulation in irradiated cells  $L_v \rightarrow L_p$  was difficult to determine owing to the uncertainty of the exact onset of vacuolation and pyknosis. The period was defined as the average time between the onset of the rapid changes in the shape of the nucleus to the time of the rupture of the chromatin ring. The period of lobulation was about 20 minutes.

In nonirradiated cells the median duration of the process  $L_n \rightarrow L_v$  is 21.7 hours. The average period of lobulation  $L_v \rightarrow L_p$  is 20 minutes. The period of lobulation is approximately the same in the irradiated and the nonirradiated cell although not enough cells have been studied to rule out any minor differences.

Of considerable interest is the effect of various factors on these reactions. Some of the factors have been reviewed by Patt (7). The change of  $L_n$  to  $L_x$  occurs at any temperature from 4° to 41°. There is no temperature where the reaction is maximum and there is no temperature which inhibits the reaction.

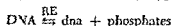
The effect of the pH on this reaction has not been studied to any great extent although there is some evidence that large variations in pH have no effect on the change of  $L_n$  to  $L_x$ . Oxygen tension during irradiation and shortly thereafter is important however. For maximum effect the suspension has to be equilibrated with an atmosphere of 20 to 100% of oxygen. Lowered oxygen tension and particularly anoxia at 37° partly inhibit the reaction so that less  $L_x$  cells are formed and the

lymphocytes seem to be radioresistant. The reaction  $L_n \longrightarrow L_x$  is also partly inhibited by the addition of 20 mM of cysteine at 37° shortly before irradiation.

The transformation of the irradiated cell to the vacuolized cell and the pyknotic cell  $L_x \longrightarrow L_v \longrightarrow L_p$  also depends on various conditions. The reaction takes place when the cells are incubated at 21° to 41° with the maximum reaction occurring at 37°. The reaction is completely inhibited at 4° to 17° so that the irradiated cell  $L_x$  survives as long as the nonirradiated cell at these temperatures. Furthermore the pH of the incubated irradiated suspension has to be between 6.5 to 8.5 although no pH is optimum for the reaction  $L_x \longrightarrow L_p$ . At pH of 6.0 the reaction is completely inhibited and the irradiated cells survive as long as the nonirradiated cells. The effect of oxygen tension has not yet been studied on this reaction as far as I know. Cysteine has no effect so that addition of this compound after irradiation does not protect the irradiated cells.

It should be noted that during irradiation *in vitro* or cysteine at 37° partially protected lymphocytes from irradiation but after irradiation the cells were protected from an early death by the addition of acid to a pH of 6.0 or by incubation at a low temperature.

What does it all mean? Any answer to this question is speculation. We have seen that the normal nucleus became a pyknotic nucleus plus one or more vacuoles. This reaction occurred spontaneously and was accelerated by irradiation. The reaction seemed to be highly radio sensitive. This morphologic change seemed to involve the chromatin material. The normal chromatin became the altered chromatin of the pyknotic nucleus plus the vacuolar substance which could not be stained by any of the histochemical stains tried. These and other findings suggest the following equation as a working hypothesis:



The reasons for formulating this reaction cannot be given here but I shall try to explain the equation. In the degenerating lymphocyte the deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) in the chromatin is assumed to produce the depolymerized deoxyribonucleic acid (dna) plus the vacuole which is assumed to consist of inorganic phosphates. On the other hand the normal lymphocyte is known to take up phosphates and produce DNA. This synthesis is assumed to be controlled by an enzyme RE. The equation states that in the normal lymphocyte both reactions occur reversibly with the enzyme RE controlling only the synthesis. If RE is assumed to be highly radiosensitive radiation will inhibit the synthesis of DNA and the reverse reaction can proceed unhampered. In the nonirradiated



lymphocyte RE deteriorates spontaneously and the same type of degeneration occurs. According to this hypothesis death of the irradiated animal may be due to the lack of RE or of some essential DNA. Injection of bone marrow or spleen might replace these compounds.

It should be observed that this hypothesis combines the hypotheses and findings of other workers. It is in accord with the work of Hevesy (5) and Klein and Forrsberg (6) that irradiation decreases the uptake of  $P^{32}$  and inhibits the synthesis of DNA. It is in accord with the studies of Harrington and Koza (4) and others that x rays cause the depolymerization of DNA. Barron *et al* (1) suggest that x rays cause the inactivation of an enzyme and are especially destructive to phosphatases in solution. Finally, the liberation of phosphates would disturb the osmotic pressure and cause the influx of water into the nucleus. And Fulla (3) claims that radiosensitivity is dependent on a disturbance of the osmotic pressure in the nucleus.

The equation is a hypothesis but we still have to see if it works.

In conclusion we may say quite definitely that x rays kill lymphocytes or rather that x rays decrease the longevity of the lymphocyte. This reaction occurs both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Second it is quite definite that the death of the irradiated cell is due to the development of intranuclear vacuoles. The vacuoles also occur in nonirradiated lymphocytes. These findings suggest that there is a specific biochemical reaction that is radiosensitive. The reaction occurs in lymphocytes and possibly also in mitotic cells but not in other cells. This biochemical radiosensitive reaction may involve a reversible anabolic catabolic reaction of DNA.

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## Added Comment

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The work I wish to mention briefly is related to the research I have been doing during the last few years—namely the recovery of animals from radiation injury as a result of spleen shielding or spleen transplants or after the intraperitoneal or intravenous administration of homogenates of spleen bone marrow etc.

My impression over the first few years was that irradiated animals given tissue of hematopoietic origin lived because they probably were getting from the administered cells a humoral substance that made it possible for their own hematopoietic tissue to regenerate. This theory was supported to my way of thinking, by the work of Lorenz and others and by some data of our own that indicated that heterologous material of hematopoietic origin was effective. For example rat marrow was effective in mice. We have shown that mouse marrow mouse spleen and mouse liver are effective in the rabbit.

There is work in progress however in various laboratories (not our own) which should be brought to your attention. The studies I shall discuss demonstrate that we must change our thinking somewhat about what cells can do in a new host.

Barnes and Loutit working in England did the experiment to be described. They irradiated mice and then injected into them marrow from the same strain but with chromosome 6 marked. They found that the mice survived the radiation. A very large percentage of the make up of the surviving animals hematopoietic tissue at intervals after irradiation was indeed made up of donor cells as indicated by a study of the marked chromosomes.

Lindsay and Odell at the same time did a beautiful piece of work. Within the same strain of rat they had a group with a type C blood and another group with type D. They irradiated the type D animals with a

lethal dose and injected type C bone marrow. In 120 days 85% of the red cells in the circulating system of the animal was from the donor.

There is an interesting report by Dr L. Cole in a recent Navy bulletin to my knowledge not yet in the open literature. He used the technique of Gomori developed some years ago that demonstrates that mouse and rat cells are different from the point of view of alkaline phosphatase staining. Dr. Cole irradiated mice and gave them rat cells. As you know mice will live after lethal irradiation if given rat cells. Then he simply stained the cells and the bone marrow and found that at 20 days after irradiation the bulk of the cell population was alkaline phosphatase positive. This of course tends to indicate that the rat cells are living in the mouse and may well be responsible for the observed survival. In his publication Cole says that he observed some of his animals as late as 120 days after irradiation and that alkaline phosphatase positive cells still existed.

If one gives normal CF1 mice DBA leukemic cells (work done by Dr E. L. Simmons in our own laboratory) no leukemia develops. CF1 mice will develop leukemia however if they are irradiated prior to being given DBA leukemic cell preparations. On the other hand a normal CF1 mouse which is irradiated with its spleen shielded will not develop leukemia even when given DBA leukemia if the spleen is removed shortly after irradiation. If the CF1 mouse is x irradiated and given normal CF1 cells and nonleukemic DBA cells so that it survives the radiation and then after 1 month it is given leukemic DBA the mouse will develop leukemia and die.

In summary the problem of the mechanism of recovery of irradiated rodents after spleen shielding or the injection of hematopoietic tissue is not settled. It now appears that my original contention that the shielded or injected tissue brought about recovery largely by a humoral substance or group of substances is probably wholly or partly wrong since it has been demonstrated that the injected tissue multiplies and repopulates the depleted hematopoietic tissues of the irradiated animal. One cannot entirely discard the humoral theory at the present time however because one would still have to explain the recovery of the capacity to form antibodies and other phenomena that cannot be explained by simple repopulation. For example the positive alkaline phosphatase reaction observed in irradiated mice that have received rat marrow by injection may conceivably be a more complicated problem than a matter of simple repopulation.

## Added Comment

JACOB FURTH

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I shall not attempt to discuss any of the papers just presented. Instead I propose to correlate observations on human beings with experimental studies on the induction of leukemias in animals by ionizing radiation.

The splendid presentations on mouse leukemia given by several of my colleagues and Professor Witts' excellent review of human leukemias induced by ionizing radiation enable me to be brief.

To begin with I shall have to repeat what Professor Witts has said. There is only a single known agent well documented to cause leukemia—ionizing radiation. But ionizing radiation probably accounts for only a very small percentage of leukemias. The situation is somewhat analogous to that of lung tumor incidence. Both appear to be on the increase. With both an agent is implicated which is responsible for some but not for most of the increase.

Professor Witts reviewed the three sources of information available in man—the radiologists, the Japanese (Hiroshima) casualties, and the therapeutically induced leukemias, that is, therapeutic accidents.

I wish to repeat the generalization that leukemia is not a single disease. The situation can be understood only if we consider the various types of leukemias separately, their incidence in a given population in relation to age, sex, occupation, genetics, and other factors which may be involved in their genesis.

With respect to leukemias among radiologists, as far as I can gather from the statistics, the ratio of the two main types, myeloid and lymphoid, is about the same as that in the population at large. The Hiroshima cases were almost all of the myeloid or "blast" type, but so are most leukemias reported in the Japanese population. One wonders whether this is due to genetics or to some other factor which favors the induction of myeloid leukemia. At present we have but meager information on the relation of myeloid stimulation to leukemogenesis.

The Hiroshima story is not yet final. The reported decline proved to be temporary and very recent information indicates that leukemia is still occurring in fairly large numbers as if a new peak will make its appearance. Will some of these leukemias be of the lymphoid type? Different types of human leukemias have different peaks and the full story cannot be told until final mortality statistics of this generation are available.

Turning to therapeutic accidents we have two interesting groups of well analyzed cases. In England (Court Brown and Abbatt) spinal column radiation of young adults for rheumatoid arthritis caused mainly myeloid leukemias. In the United States the data of Simpson, Hempel, and Fuller showed that in children treated with x rays for thymic enlargement the type of leukemia produced was lymphoblastic or of the stem cell—that is, of the childhood type. It is important to note that localized irradiation can induce lymphoid leukemias in man (in mice the importance of total body irradiation is stressed) and that the leukemogenic dose was small in children (somewhere in the range of 150 to 400 r) and high in adults (thousands of roentgens).

One wonders whether these differences are due to the site of the radiation or to age at time of irradiation. The Court Brown and Abbatt cases relate to spinal column that is bone marrow irradiations; those of Simpson *et al.* to predominant exposure of lymphoid tissues. Are sites of the radiation and age determinants of the type of leukemia induced?

The incidence of leukemia in both man and animals is proportional to the dose. The maximum induction rate both in Japan and among patients irradiated with rheumatoid arthritis is close to 1 in 100 exposed people, a developmental rate of several hundredfold of that in the non-irradiated population. Animal experiments are carried out on such small scale that neoplasia induction rates in these ranges would not be registered. This may explain why rats, rabbits, and guinea pigs in which irradiation studies were conducted were declared resistant species. The extraordinary sensitivity of mice to leukemias is remarkable. No comparative figures are available but it seems that the leukemia inducing tissue dose was much smaller in the Hiroshima (total body irradiated) than in the arthritis (partial body irradiated) cases, suggesting the role of some protective influence.

In mice the type of leukemia most thoroughly investigated originates in the thymus; the other types have not been adequately studied. Frequently generalizations are made from these experimental studies in mice on the induction of lymphomas of thymic origin as if the results

would hold true for all leukemias of all species. It was shown a long time ago that removal of the thymus will prevent development of most leukemias in certain strains of mice because most of them are thymic in origin. Thymectomized animals lived longer but other types of leukemias killed many of them at later age.

If thymectomized mice are irradiated other types of leukemias come into prominence. In the B6 strain both lymphoid and myeloid leukemias occur in high percentage after irradiation. The spontaneous incidence of leukemia in this strain is low; the lymphoid is more common and its peak occurrence precedes that of myeloid leukemia. Thymectomy prevents the induction by ionizing irradiation of lymphoid leukemias of thymic origin but not of myeloid leukemias. The frequency of myeloid leukemias actually rises because thymectomy prevents the thymic type of lymphoid leukemia (Upton and Furth).

Briefly, the factors involved in leukemogenesis of myeloid and non-thymic lymphopoietic tissues should not be identified with those of thymic lymphoma of mice. I have singled out two types of experimental leukemias: thymic lymphoma and myeloid leukemia. We have but scant information on chronic myeloid leukemia with maturation and we have no equivalent in mice of the chronic small cell type of lymphoid leukemia of man. We are uncertain as to the relationship between small celled lymphosarcoma of man and large celled thymic lymphosarcoma of the mouse.

Generalized nonthymic leukemias occur in a fair degree of frequency in some strains of mice. This has been thoroughly studied by Kirschbaum and Law. Law found that in some inbred strains almost all leukemias are thymic and in other strains almost all are extra-thymic. The many available inbred strains of mice provide rich material for the study of both genetic factors and responsiveness to extrinsic agents.

There is no evidence to indicate that a virus is described by Gross plays a significant role in the development of leukemia after ionizing irradiation because the irradiation in appropriate doses will induce leukemia in a very high percentage of mice of almost every low leukemia strain whereas this hypothetical virus has a high strain selectivity and infects only newborn animals. This leads me to problems on fractionation. Fractionating a given total dose can enhance the leukemia incidence in a low leukemia strain of mice from a few per cent to as high as over 70% (Kaplan *et al*). There has not been enough experimentation on the role of timing in fractionation of a given dose. The interval as well as the size of the dose is of major importance. By proper extension of the interval the leukemia induction rate can be reduced. There is some evidence indicating that the effects of fractiona-

tion are not the same for different types of leukemias. More research is needed along these lines.

Differences in hormonal factors on leukemia induction are worthy of a few comments. In most strains of mice estrogens are leukemogenic (Gardner). Leukemia occurs with greater frequency in females and is of the lymphoid type. Androgens are antileukemogenic. This is not true in man. Most leukemia in man are myeloid and the frequency is greater in males.

In a large scale study of the late effects of an atomic explosion (Operation Greenhouse) in the groups exposed to more than 700 r thymic lymphoma occurred with greater frequency among males and the threshold dose was about 500 r. In females the threshold dose was lower even the 192 r group showing a distinct increase. The earliest cases appeared in the fourth month postirradiation and the peak incidence occurred at 7 to 12 months after exposure. The greater incidence of thymic lymphomas in males is contrary to earlier experience with most strains of mice exposed to sublethal doses in which these tumors were more common in females. Other forms of leukemia including generalized and other lymphomas, reticulum cell sarcomas and rarely myeloid leukemias occurred relatively late in life and were less numerous in the irradiated animals than in the controls. After correction for longevity however the incidence of these types of leukemia was slightly higher among the exposed mice (Upton, Furth *et al*). In this strain (LAF1) unlike most other strains of mice ovariectomy in females greatly enhances the leukemia incidence (Buffett and Furth). Thus in this strain there is an androgenic predominance in the induction of lymphoid leukemias.

Leukemias do occur in castrates in both males and females and the only permissible generalization is that gonadal hormones are modifiers of leukemia incidence but not its determinants. Corticoids influence the development of spontaneous lymphoid leukemias and their induction by x rays but it is doubtful that they affect myeloid leukemias of mice and it is unknown what role if any corticoids play in the development of spontaneous leukemia of man and animals.

I should like to say a word about the meaning of the terms dependence and responsiveness. In animal experimentation autonomy can be well defined: an autonomous tumor is that which grows in an untreated host. But autonomy is not synonymous with responsiveness. Some autonomous tumors (grown in normal hosts) are resistant and others are sensitive to the physiologic forces which influence proliferation of that particular type of cell. Recently we have learned to distinguish three types of autonomous tumors: (1) those responsive to their physiologic

restraining force (2) those stimulated by them and (3) those indifferent to them. One may theorize that leukemias of the same types probably exist (that is dependent autonomous of either of the three variant types) but thus far only autonomous leukemias of unspecified character have been studied in animals.

I should like to point to a few interesting problems related to leukemogenesis which deserve clarification. Research on protective factors was initiated by Dr. Jacobson when he demonstrated the protective effect of splenic shielding. Later the findings of Lorenz, Jacobson, Kaplan and their associates turned attention to bone marrow. There are reports that other organs may also contain protective agents. Is this protective ability a universal property of all cells or is it a special feature of marrow cells or is it present in greater concentrations in some cells than in others? Only future research will tell. That there is a protecting substance circulating in the blood has long been shown by parabiosis studies; the more recent demonstration of radiation protection (including prevention of leukemia) by injection of hemopoietic tissues discussed by Dr. Jacobson opens up a highly fertile field of research in radiation biology.

The counterpart of this radiation protecting agent is the leukemia producing agent created by irradiation which was discovered by Dr. Kaplan. This is one of the most spectacular developments of the past few years. Does this factor affect other types of leukemias as well or is it related only to the highly hormonal dependent thymic lymphoma? Dr. Kaplan, with whom I have been discussing this problem, is almost willing to generalize and to postulate that most perhaps all neoplasms are induced by an indirect mechanism. I shall cite some recent observations relevant to this problem.

In a current unpublished study (Buffett and Furth) undertaken primarily to learn about pituitary tumorigenesis, a group of animals was irradiated over the lower two thirds of the body, the thymus and head being shielded. In another group the head and neck were heavily irradiated and lower parts of the body were shielded. The leukemia incidence in the partially irradiated groups dropped to almost zero. Other neoplasms occurred in the irradiated areas at greater frequency, however. Indeed, it is possible to raise the local tissue dose by partial body irradiation, increasing thereby the number of neoplasms arising at radiation sites. It seems that the circulating leukemia inducing and leukemia protective agents are not or are only very slightly effective against other neoplasms. Apparently protective and promoting influences of neoplasia induction have to be considered individually with each neoplasm. A neoplasm induced by hormonal derangement can be prevented



Homogenates of spleen after total body irradiation contain very little or none of this inhibitor of deoxyribonuclease. If the radiation acts by destroying the inhibitor the nuclease would be free to depolymerize the DNA and this reaction would have the characteristics of temperature and pH dependence such as Dr Schrek described.

We have attempted to generalize from this hypothesis and to suggest that the cell death which follows irradiation may be secondary to the destruction of the inhibitor and the consequent depolymerization of the cells by the deoxyribonuclease and that the recovery from irradiation may be associated with a compensatory excess increase in this inhibitor and this might then give rise to tumor development and leukemia.

DR ROGER KLEIN (Galveston Texas) Perhaps you have read in the newspapers recently the story of the twin girls in Michigan both of whom had leukemia. There are in the literature other cases of leukemia in twins. A very interesting statistic by Macklin in the *Journal of Heredity* in 1940 shows that when monozygous twins both had cancer in 95% of the cases the cancers were of the same tissue.

This fact seems to prove that carcinogenesis is related to the problem of cell differentiation. The beautiful work by Dr Kaplan and the most recent publications in radiology and endocrinology show that the mechanism of carcinogenesis is indirect, probably in two steps. We can understand it by the progressive and finally irreversible loss of a factor of inhibition and of maturation which is linked with the species identity and the multiplication of a factor of proliferation which is bound with the tissue specificity.

By the same mechanism of acquisition of autonomy by loss we could perhaps understand why the autonomous cancers are homotransplantable and not the normal tissues. Both factors probably are involved in the mechanism of protein synthesis of antibody synthesis and of immunity and that could explain that cancer is also a loss of the mechanism of cellular immunity.

DR HENRY S. KAPLAN (San Francisco California) I should like to comment on a few items that have come up in relation to the many challenging things that other speakers have presented this afternoon.

Starting first with Dr Hauschka's presentation you will recall that I demonstrated a lymphoma which arose in a thymic graft in a nonirradiated mouse. We have been conducting serial biopsies of some of these tumors allowing the same tumor to grow back between biopsies and ultimately of course when the tumors become disseminated taking a final biopsy at the time of autopsy.

At the time of each biopsy we have preserved a piece of tissue for histological examination permitting us to establish and verify the diagnosis of lymphosarcoma at each of the biopsy stages and we have then taken the remainder of the tissue and inoculated it either intraperitoneally or subcutaneously into young normal C57 black mice. Unfortunately we are still in the 16-gauge trocar stage. Dr Hauschka nonetheless it would appear that there is a progressive increase during the natural history of these tumors in their capacity to "take" in mice of the same strain.

This appears to me to be a counterpart of Dr Furth's demonstration with the transplantable pituitary tumors of a possible conditioned relationship to the host of origin. Thus it would appear if these observations are confirmed as we extend them that there may be (in the case of the lymphoma developing *in situ*) a conditioned state of transitory nature.

**Part IV**

**The Leukemias and the Malignant Lymphomas**

Chairman

**Carl V. Moore**

School of Medicine

Washington University

St. Louis, Missouri

## The Leukemias — Their Scope

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In a symposium on leukemia there should be a discussion of the nature of leukemia, the various conditions that appear to be related to it, and the scope of discussions pertaining to the disease.

An attempt to define leukemia would naturally fail. A definition based on morphological features would not satisfy a biochemist, nor would his definition be considered suitable by a geneticist, a biologist, or a clinician. We need, however, some idea of the kind of disease with which we are working. We also need to define more clearly the boundaries between leukemia and the conditions closely related to it, and conditions that are less closely related though they may resemble leukemia.

An example may be noted in the general group of malignant lymphomas. It is now widely believed that lymphatic leukemia and lymphosarcoma are different manifestations of the same disease. Acceptance of this view has come about largely from the experimental study of leukemia in mice. As has already been reported, each of the characters studied—biologic, genetic, morphologic, and immunologic characters, transplantability, etc.—has its counterpart in a similar character of tumors other than leukemia. Moreover, in transmission experiments certain features of the disease may be modified by the method of inoculation, or by modifying the immunological background of the host.

Less obvious are the relationships of Hodgkin's disease, reticulum cell sarcoma, and mycosis fungoides, in which there has been no opportunity for experimental transmission of these diseases in laboratory animals.

A closer relationship has been noted among the proliferative diseases of the reticuloendothelial system, among which have been described

As stated above monocytic leukemia is often described as a proliferative disorder of the reticuloendothelial system. There has however long been a tendency to recognize two varieties, only one of which is so related, the other arising from primitive cells of the bone marrow. Without reviewing the literature in detail it may be stated that the clinical, hematological and pathological features of the two types have been described in detail especially by Dameshek (2), Downey (3), Watkins and Hill (7), Belding *et al.* (1) and others. Nevertheless there continues to be uncertainty regarding the degree of reticulum and reticuloendothelial proliferation (6).

An opportunity was afforded to supplement available material with cases of monocytic leukemia from the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology. These cases were studied particularly by section methods to determine to what extent this method afforded evidence for participation of the reticuloendothelial system.

Forty-five cases in which the diagnosis of monocytic leukemia was made were found suitable for study. The changes observed on histological examination corresponded to those reported in the literature but the writers' interpretation of some of the findings was somewhat different. Attention centered on the relation of leukemic cells to the endothelium and reticulum. Hypertrophy of the lining cells of the sinuses of lymph nodes and spleen was not uncommon and reactive mononuclear phagocytic cells arose therefrom. These cells were not leukemic cells, however, and did not resemble them.

Not infrequently leukemic cells were found in close proximity to the lining of the sinuses. This however was not considered evidence of origin from the endothelial cells. Numerous examples of amoeboid activity with passage of the cells through the sinus walls suggested that proximity to the wall may be one stage in the process of such passage.

It was also noted that even when hypertrophy of endothelial or reticulum cells occurred it was not widely distributed and did not involve all parts of the so called reticuloendothelial system. There was no question of a "system" disease therefore regardless of the interpretation placed on these histological findings.

As previously mentioned two types of monocytic leukemia have been described. As the cases studied were not selected in a manner that would influence the type of disease it is reasonable to suppose that both types were represented. In none of the cases however could it be established that reticuloendothelial cells played an important part in histogenesis. Study of smears as well as sections showed that in many of the cases there were myelocytes in small numbers. There were also

both localized and generalized forms the latter often with leukemic blood pictures. In this connection one must recall the emphasis that has been placed on the reticuloendothelial system as a source of blood cells in the normal individual as well as the origin of cell accumulations in the leukemias. The most direct association of leukemic cells with reticulum or reticuloendothelial cells has been postulated in monocytic leukemia a situation that may be anticipated from the widely accepted belief that monocytes are normally derivatives of the reticuloendothelial system. The potentialities of the "system" are not considered to be so limited however for the possibility of differentiation into other types of blood cells has been advanced to explain myeloid metaplasia and lymphocytic infiltrations.

On this basis all the conditions under discussion have by one author or another been related to each other as different developmental orientations of the reticuloendothelial system. The views expressed regarding the part played by the reticuloendothelial system are widely divergent however. The differences may be illustrated by three quotations.

The first is from a paper by Wiseman (8) in which he states: "Monocytic leukemia is one form of reticuloendotheliosis. The varied reactions in monocytic leukemia suggest that all forms of leukemia may be hematologic varieties of reticuloendotheliosis."

The second quotation is from Forkner (4): "The reticuloendothelial system which is really nothing more than differentiated mesenchymal macrophages must not be confused with primitive undifferentiated mesenchymal cells. Many workers have placed entirely too broad an interpretation on the reticuloendothelial system thus causing it to lose its identity."

The third is from a paper by Gall (5): "It is proposed therefore that there is no such entity as a reticulum cell and that reticulum cell sarcoma as recorded in the literature consists of a group of conditions related only in that they represent primary neoplasms of hemopoietic tissue."

We thus have views varying from complete acceptance of reticuloendothelium as the cell type of origin of all the conditions through degrees of doubt that the "system" is responsible for all that has been ascribed to it to the final denial of its existence.

In this situation one cannot accept any of the views expressed without reservation. Indeed it might be better to start anew with a reinvestigation of the so called reticuloendothelial system—its various morphological components, the reactions of its cells, their relations to each other and potentialities for differentiation.

As stated above monocytic leukemia is often described as a proliferative disorder of the reticuloendothelial system. There has however long been a tendency to recognize two varieties, only one of which is so related, the other arising from primitive cells of the bone marrow. Without reviewing the literature in detail it may be stated that the clinical, hematological and pathological features of the two types have been described in detail especially by Dameshek (2), Downey (3), Watkins and Hall (7), Belding *et al* (1) and others. Nevertheless there continues to be uncertainty regarding the degree of reticulum and reticuloendothelial proliferation (6).

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cases in which transition between cells resembling myeloblasts and monocytes suggested that the leukemic cells arose from primitive cells of the bone marrow

There are obviously other methods of examination that may give more and better information about the potential activities of reticuloendothelial cells than the one used in this study. Failure to recognize formation of leukemic cells from the reticuloendothelial system does not indicate that such transformation may not occur nor does it disprove interrelationships between leukemias and other conditions. It does however raise the question of the importance of the "system" as a hematopoietic organ and indicates the need for continued investigation of the nature of the relationships involved.

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# 12

## The Malignant Lymphomas

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The relationship between leukemia and the group of tumors known to American pathologists as the malignant lymphomas is still not clearly defined. In the absence of knowledge of the etiologic agents or mechanisms only the most rudimentary classifications of these idiopathic conditions are justified. A discussion based on morphologic observations has little hope of reconciling our divergent views into a unified concept. Nevertheless it is of value to consider the situation from a historical point of view in order to explain some attitudes shared by a fairly large segment of American pathologists and hematologists<sup>1</sup>.

About twenty years after Virchow's discovery of leukemia Cohnheim began the separation of a group of related conditions without the typical findings of leukemia. His designation of these as "pseudoleukemia" clearly applies to what we would now recognize as aleukemic lymphadenosis or aleukemic leukemia. For a long time pseudoleukemia included a group of diseases of lymphoid tissues characterized by tumefaction of lymph nodes. The concept embraced conditions referred to by current authors as lymphosarcoma, lymphogranuloma or Hodgkins disease, aleukemic lymphadenosis or aleukemic lymphocytic leukemia as well as various types of reticuloendothelial cell hyperplasias. As a result of the ever expanding list of conditions designated as pseudoleukemia the term lost specificity and meaning and it is now obsolete.

In 1893 Kundrat described lymphosarcoma as a primary malignant disease of the lymphatic system beginning locally and progressing by direct invasion and lymphogenous metastasis. Kundrat's separation of

<sup>1</sup> An excellent review of this subject is available in Watson's chapter in the Handbook of Hematology (11). Much of this historical discussion is based on the literature represented in Watson's extensive bibliography.



lymphosarcoma depended on gross anatomic findings. It was soon realized that the histologic patterns seen in lesions satisfying Kunderat's concept are readily duplicated by leukemia. The gross anatomic features of Kunderat's lymphosarcoma were the reflections of various kinds of cytologic and histologic changes. It can be appreciated why the original concept of lymphosarcoma as a special entity suffered the fate of Cohnheim's pseudoleukemia. At the time that Kunderat presented his view of the tumorlike or sarcomatous nature of lymphosarcoma, the lesions which were considered to be true tumors of lymphoid tissues were not clearly differentiated from benign hyperplasias of these tissues. Because of their apparent local and tumorlike origin, Kunderat considered certain lesions to be true tumors; therefore the term *lymphosarcoma*. This was thought to be different from leukemia because leukemic changes appeared to be of multicentric origin and diffuse in form.

Most of us today believe that both Kunderat's lymphosarcoma and leukemia are malignant neoplastic diseases, but we are faced with an old question: Is lymphosarcoma the tumorlike lesion which seems to originate from a single focus and then spread or metastasize, a different disease from leukemia which may present similar cytologic features but which usually originates multicentrically and presents lesions which are usually diffuse in character? The answer depends on discovery of etiologies. Many of us have seen patients in whom there is an initial lesion involving one site such as the stomach, bowel, or spleen, and in whom the original lesion remains localized for a period followed by evidence of spread to regional lymph nodes, as in the manner of carcinomas, after which the disease becomes widely disseminated so that ultimately some of the proliferating cells of the lesions appear in the blood, as in leukemia. An example of this sequence of events was described recently by Dameshek and Bloom (3). The patient, a 56-year-old woman under continuous observation for a period of 8 years, was first seen in 1947. Hepatosplenomegaly and pancytopenia were present without evidence of leukemia. By 1950 splenomegaly had become massive and splenic puncture resulted in a diagnosis of lymphosarcoma. In 1954 the bone marrow had become infiltrated with lymphocytes; thereafter there was an increasing number of atypical lymphocytes in the peripheral blood. Recently we have seen material from the stomach of a patient satisfying the original criteria of Kunderat for lymphosarcoma. The stomach was involved with a cellular neoplasm composed of lymphoblastic elements. There is no other known involvement except for a small lesion of localized nature in one of the gastric nodes removed with the stomach. This small area composed of lymphoid cells similar to those in the stomach

tumor might be considered a metastasis by those supporting the concept held by Kundrat

Clinical observations of a definite sequence from solitary tumor to dissemination and ultimate appearance of leukemia and the similarities of cytological features of leukemias of lymphoid tissue origin and Kundrat's lymphosarcoma indicate that the original term lymphosarcoma has no meaning with reference to histologic structure. Lymphosarcoma is a clinical rather than a histological concept. Unfortunately the term lymphosarcoma at least as it is being used in many quarters among American pathologists and clinicians has lost its original meaning. Many Americans use the term in the same way Cohnheim's term pseudo-leukemia came to be used for a group of conditions characterized by malignant hyperplasia of lymphoid tissue and with the same results. Often when an American author uses Kundrat's term he may be referring to the whole or various parts of the group of malignant lymph node lesions including lymphosarcoma Hodgkins disease lymphatic leukemia or aleukemic leukemia and reticulum cell sarcoma of lymph nodes among others.

Another event of historical significance was Sternberg's presentation of his concept of leukosarcoma in 1903. This was characterized by the presence of tumors with aggressive infiltrative growth and atypical cells different from those usually seen in ordinary leukemias. The lesions were associated with the appearance of atypical cells in the peripheral blood and the lesions were more widespread than was the case in Kundrat's lymphosarcoma. The aggressive character of the atypical cells in leukosarcoma and the sudden appearance of such cells in the blood were reasons for separating leukosarcoma from leukemia. In 1938 Richter (9) pointed out several reasons for considering Sternberg's leukosarcoma to be closely related to leukemia. He noted that in cases satisfying Sternberg's criteria there were often changes like those of leukemia in various organs. Furthermore Richter and MacDowell (cited by Richter 9) had made observations on spontaneously occurring lymphatic leukemias in mice as well as transplantation experiments with such material. They showed that all varieties of lesions may occur thus there appeared to be a fundamental unity of leukemia and leukosarcoma.

Sternberg's early work in 1898 as well as that of Reed in 1902 served to delineate Hodgkins lesions as a special entity because of the common appearance of the peculiar giant cells of that disease. The so called Sternberg Reed cells of Hodgkins tissue are considered by many to represent examples of atypical proliferation of pathological reticulum cells (1-8). Since Hodgkins lesions include such giant cells in addition

to elements of lymphocytoid character and because the anatomic and clinical manifestations of Hodgkins disease are in many ways similar to those of the conditions already discussed it is not surprising that they are considered to be related in some way. The histologic interrelationships among lesions of the malignant lymphoma group have been emphasized by Custer and Bernhard (2).

Analysis of the lymphoma group has been attempted on clinical grounds by those interested chiefly in therapy. In general the clinician is interested in a relatively simple classification and the various lesions are often referred to by that abused term lymphosarcoma which might or might not include the various forms of Hodgkins disease. Israels (5) attempted a clinicopathologic classification which included a consideration of histologic structure in addition to such items as the presence or absence of enlarged peripheral nodes, hypersplenism, leukemia, refractory anemia, bone disease and skin lesions. There is a strong tendency in the United States to regroup the various proliferative and apparently malignant conditions of lymphoid tissue into a single category called lymphoblastoma or malignant lymphoma. The basis for this seems to be the idea that they are all malignant lesions of lymphoid tissues and that they have their origin from the hematopoietic elements of such tissue. The so called reticulum cells which according to anatomists are morphologically very similar to embryonic mesenchymal cells and which form the cellular ground substance of the lymphoid tissues have in addition to other mesenchymal potentialities the capacity of differentiating hematopoietically. Therefore they are included among the hematopoietic elements of lymphoid tissue. The distinction between the types of malignant lymphomas is based largely on identification of the main cytologic types involved in the neoplastic process. This must be done with full knowledge that it is based solely on morphologic appearances although the clinical manifestations of each type are protean and often overlapping. Furthermore such distinctions must be made without prejudice as to the question of etiologic relationships or lack of etiologic relationships among them.

The lesions Americans refer to as malignant lymphomas are often referred to by Europeans as the reticuloses or lesions of the lymphoreticular system. The last term implies that lymphoid tissues are composed of lymphocytic cells and reticulum cells. This is a concept in accord with the ideas of anatomists. Europeans and Americans do not always use the same terms to designate the various cellular components in lymphoid tissue. Without attempting to present a case for the use of one kind of terminology in favor of another in Table I there are in

licated a small sampling of American (1) Swiss (7) and Italian (6) designations

A common American point of view in relation to the diagnosis of malignant lymphomas was presented by the author in 1953 (1). With respect to the histogenesis of malignant lymphomas the significant cytologic elements under normal conditions in the order of maturation or differentiation were listed as follows: (1) reticulum cells, (2) hematopoietic reticulum cells and reticular lymphocytes ("lymphoblasts" of American pathologists), (3) lymphocytes (Figs 1 and 2). These represent the hematopoietic elements of lymphoid tissues. Usually the pre-

TABLE I  
CELLULAR HEMATOPOIETIC ELEMENTS OF LYMPHOID TISSUE

American (Bernin)	Swiss (Moeschlin)	Italian (Miel elazzi)
Reticulum cells	(Fibroblasts <sup>2</sup> )	(Histoid cells)
Hematopoietic reticulum cells	Lymphoid reticulum cells	Hemohistioblasts
Reticular lymphocytes or lymphoblasts <sup>2</sup> of American pathologists	Lymphoid reticulum cells Lymphatic plasmoblasts <sup>2</sup>	Lymphoblasts Prolymphocytes
Lymphocytes	Lymphocytes	Lymphocytes

Terms in parentheses are not considered hematopoietic by some authors

dominating cells of the pathologic proliferation are among those listed above. Of course in malignancy it can be expected that cells of these types may appear abnormal. Recently Di Guglielmo (4) discussed the relation between lymphosarcoma and leukemia. On the basis of finding atypical cells of various types in instances he considered to be lymphosarcoma, he felt that it can be distinguished in nearly all cases from chronic lymphocytic leukemia in which the cells were not atypical. The tendency among Americans is to place the abnormal elements into one or more of the listed categories as atypical representatives of the cell lines. This is especially true of pathologists because many of the atypical features seen in imprints or smears are not apparent in ordinary sections of lymphoid tissues. The idea for the grouping of malignant lymphomas was developed in this country mainly by pathologists who have relied on the use of sectioned material. The hematologist who uses dry films is able to discover numerous variants which the pathologist is likely to ignore because of the more limited cellular patterns seen in sections.

The classification of malignant lymphomas presented by Berman (1) is a convenient working arrangement which can be applied to sectioned material (Table II). When necessary the simple list can be expanded to

TABLE II  
CLASSIFICATION OF MALIGNANT LYMPHOMAS

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I	Reticulum cell type
II	Lymphoblastic type
III	Lymphocytic type
IV	Mixed type
A	Hodgkin type
1	Paragranuloma
2	Granuloma
3	Sarcoma*
B	Follicular type
1	Pre blastomoid
2	Progression to diffuse form of malignant lymphoma

---

Morphologically indistinguishable from the reticulum cell type

include the more precise information gained by inspection of unusual patterns encountered in dry films. It is apparent that the classification is based on the predominance of the three main types of cells in the neoplastic tissue. Although there are some instances in which the lesion will present features of more than one type of malignant lymphoma they

# PLATE I

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FIG 1 Imprint normal lymph node. The large cell (*r*) is a reticulum cell. The cell marked *ly* is a lymphoblast and the cells marked *l* are differentiated small lymphocytes. (1050 X)

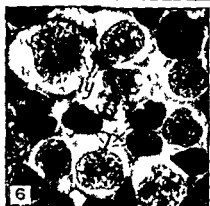
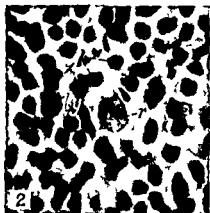
FIG 2 Section from the lymph node shown in Fig. 1. The cell *r* is a reticulum cell, *ly* is a lymphoblast and the cells marked *l* are small differentiated lymphocytes. (1050 X)

FIG 3 Imprint lymphoblastoma, reticulum cell type. The large pathological reticulum cells (*r*) have large nucleoli. (1050 X)

FIG 4 Section from the lesion shown in Fig. 3 showing reticulum cells (*r*) with nuclei of various sizes. (1050 X)

FIG 5 A giant polyploid reticulum cell in an imprint of a reticulum cell tumor. (1050 X)

FIG 6 Imprint lymphoblastoma, lymphoblastic type showing lymphoblasts (*ly*) with nucleoli and differential lymphocytes (*l*). (1050 X)



form a relatively small percentage of cases. It is to be noted that the malignant lymphomas do not include a lesion affecting lymph nodes which is seen in patients with acute leukemia. It is important to recognize the fact that the stem cells or lymphoblasts of acute lymphocytic leukemia are quite different from the "lymphoblasts" of normal lymphoid tissues. The hematopoietic and reticular lymphocytes which represent intermediate forms of lymphocytic cells of normal lymph nodes and which predominate in the lymphoblastic type of malignant lymphoma are often difficult to differentiate from the lymphoblasts of acute leukemia in sectioned material except for the fact that in leukemia the stem cells usually have very little cytoplasm. It is unfortunate that the peculiar and special cell seen in acute leukemia and properly known as lymphoblast is confused with the "lymphoblasts" seen in malignant lymphomas or normal lymphoid tissue. This is largely the result of the appropriation by pathologists of the term lymphoblast to describe the lymphoid hematopoietic reticulum cells and reticular lymphocytes of lymphoid tissues. A discussion of the essential differences between the true lymphoblasts of acute lymphocytic leukemia and the relatively undifferentiated lymphocytes of lymphoid tissues is given by Sundberg (10). The morphologic appearances of the lesions in malignant lymphomas as seen in sections and imprints is shown in Figs 3-9 and 17-24. For diagnosis the combined use of sections and imprints is advantageous and often necessary. The histologic architecture of the lesions offers indications of their benign or malignant nature whereas the imprints are frequently needed for accurate identification of cell types. Usually, unless atypical and bizarre cells are present in large number

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#### PLATE II

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FIG 7 Section from the lymph node shown in Fig 6. The large cell near the center of the field is a reticulum cell. The other cells are lymphoblasts. (1050 X)

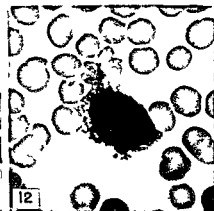
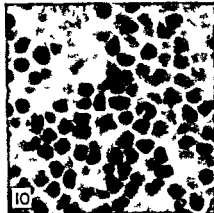
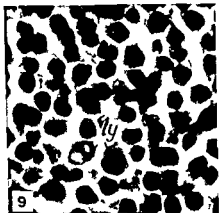
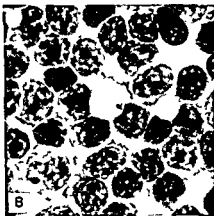
FIG 8 Imprint lymphoblastoma, lymphocytic type. (1050 X)

FIG 9 Section from the lesion shown in Fig 8. A few lymphoblasts (ly) are present. (1050 X)

FIG 10 Section of bone marrow of a patient with lymphocytic lymphoblastoma. The myeloid tissue is infiltrated with differentiated lymphocytes. (1050 X)

FIG 11 Undifferentiated hematopoietic reticulum cell in a blood smear from a patient with leukemic reticuloendotheliosis. (1050 X)

FIG 12 Undifferentiated reticulum cell in a blood smear from a patient with leukemic reticuloendotheliosis. (1050 X)





imprints are not adequate for determining whether or not a lesion is malignant because the elements seen in imprints are also present in normal or reactive lymphoid tissue

The relationships between the malignant lymphomas and leukemias were discussed in detail in a previous paper (1). It is commonly observed that the patient who has a lymph node tumor which the pathologist diagnoses as malignant lymphoma, lymphocytic type is an individual who has peripheral blood manifestations of chronic lymphocytic leukemia or in whom there are diffuse lesions typical of that disease in various organs and tissues (Fig 10). The diagnosis made depends on how much and what part of the patient is examined. In the author's material the lymphoblastic lymphomas are accompanied by a leukemic blood picture in 50% of cases during the course of the disease. The frequency with which other authors have encountered a leukemic picture seems to be related to the frequency of blood studies. Sometimes a patient with lymphoblastic lymphoma had a disease which began as enlargement of lymph nodes without a leukemic blood picture thus conforming to the original concept of lymphosarcoma. Later as the condition became more widely disseminated atypical lymphoid cells appeared in the blood in increasing number so that eventually leukemia was present.

Although the reticulum cell type of malignant lymphoma is nearly always leukemic there are cases in which the peripheral blood contains

### PLATE III

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FIG 13 Undifferentiated cell in a bone marrow smear from a patient with leukemic reticuloendotheliosis. The two small cells are differentiated lymphocytes (1050 X)

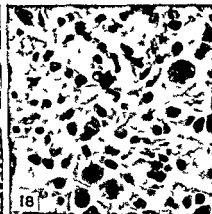
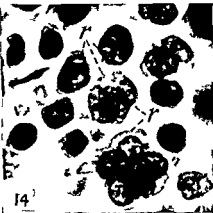
FIG 14 Pathologic reticulum cells (r) in a tumor of the liver from the patient whose bone marrow is shown in Fig 13 (sectioned material) (1050 X)

FIG 15 Section of lymph node from a patient with leukemic reticuloendotheliosis. The large plurinuclear cell cannot be distinguished from a Sternberg Reed cell. Other cells (u) are abnormal undifferentiated cells whose nuclei in imprint preparations have the characteristics of reticulum cells shown in Figs 13 and 16 although they resemble lymphoblasts in sections (1050 X)

FIG 16 Pathologic reticulum cells in a bone marrow smear from a patient with myeloid reticulosis and reticulum cell type of malignant lymphoma (1050 X)

FIG 17 Section lymph node Hodgkin paragranuloma (585 X)

FIG 18 Section lymph node Hodgkin granuloma (585 X)



primitive reticulum cells and their atypical derivatives which are hardly classifiable with existing terminology. The free cells originating from the tumors may have a monocyctoid or lymphocyctoid appearance or they may remain undifferentiated (Figs 11-16). Whereas lymphomas of the reticulum cell type are usually aleukemic and may be regarded as examples of aleukemic reticulosis, the instances in which the cells appear in the circulating blood may be regarded as examples of leukemic reticulosis or as is frequently stated leukemic reticuloendotheliosis.

In summary, the group of lesions classified as the malignant lymphomas by many American pathologists represent partial pictures based on the study of isolated lesions of lymph nodes of patients who may have more generalized and leukemia like conditions. The fact that the malignant lymphomas may appear in aleukemic and leukemic forms depending partly on the time of study of the patient and partly on the extent of the study and no doubt partly on the nature of the pathologic process itself indicates that there is a fundamental relationship between the malignant lymphomas and leukemia at least in the way the tissues react to varied and possibly unrelated stimuli. Our present ignorance of the nature of these stimuli emphasizes the provisional nature of the entire concept of the malignant lymphomas as a disease entity.

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#### PLATE IV

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FIG 19 Section lymph node Hodgkin granuloma (585 X)

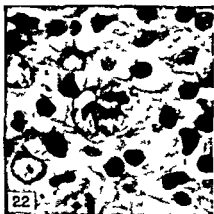
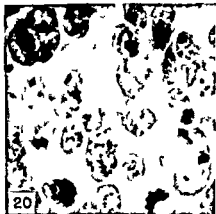
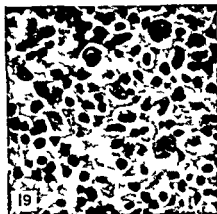
FIG 20 Section lymph node Hodgkin sarcoma. The lesion is practically identical with the reticulum cell type of tumor shown in Fig 4 (1050 X)

FIG 21 Sternberg Reed cell in an imprint of a lymph node (Hodgkin granuloma) (1050 X)

FIG 22 Section of the lymph node shown in Fig 21. A Sternberg Reed cell is in the center of the field (1050 X)

FIG 23 Section of lymph node lymphoblastoma follicular type. This lesion contains discrete nodules and is sometimes called a pre blastomoid stage (105 X)

FIG 24 Section of lymph node lymphoblastoma follicular type showing progression to diffuse type of malignant lymphoma (105 X)



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Part V  
Leukocytic Physiology

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## Cultivation of Leukemic Cells in the Cartesian Diver

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The cultivation of leukemic cells *in vitro* has been attempted by numerous authors during the last forty three years. With a few exceptions the efforts to establish continuous growth of malignant blood cells have been unsuccessful. The mitotic activity frequently stops soon after explantation. In some cases cell multiplication continues for a short period at a moderate rate which however is unable to compensate for cell death.

Among the exceptions from this general rule are seven mouse leukemias which have been kept *in vitro* in an active state of proliferation for long periods of time. The presence of fibroblasts in these cultures has been shown to be essential for the growth of the leukemic cells. The literature on this subject has recently been reviewed (2).

The mechanism of the growth supporting effect of the fibroblasts is so far unknown. It may be that the mechanical support plays a role but it is also possible that the fibroblasts provide the leukemic cells with various growth promoting metabolites. The removal by the fibroblasts of growth inhibiting agents is a third possibility which should be considered.

The influence of fibroblasts on the growth of human leukemic cells *in vitro* has been studied repeatedly but satisfactory results have not yet been obtained. Until recently progress in the attempts to grow human leukemic cells in tissue culture has been restricted mainly to prolongation of survival time. Owing to the contributions by Osgood *et al* (5, 6) however this situation has lately changed. These authors have developed a method of tissue culture based on gradient principles which have permitted continuous growth and multiplication of hemic cells for up to two years. The results obtained by this method indicate



that cell multiplication may depend on oxygen tension among other factors. Therefore as pointed out by Osgood it would be desirable to repeat metabolic studies under ideal oxygen tension. Such studies have been carried out during the last few months at the cytochemical division of the Carlsberg Laboratory in collaboration with the Fibiger Laboratory.

### Material and Methods

Blood samples from normal persons and from patients with leukemia were placed in an incubator at 37° for a few hours. Citrate or oxalate was used as anticoagulant. After spontaneous sedimentation of the red cells the leukocyte containing supernatant was placed on top of a 30% bovine albumin solution in a centrifuge tube. After centrifugation at 1500 rpm for 10 minutes an erythrocyte free suspension of white cells in their own serum could be aspirated from the tube. The suspension was diluted with equal parts of Tyrodes solution and samples were removed for the metabolic study.

Cell respiration was measured by the Cartesian diver method the principles and technique of which were developed by Linderstrøm Lang (3) and Holter (1). A schematic drawing of measuring apparatus and diver is presented in Fig. 1. Divers with a total volume of 30 to 50  $\mu$ l were used. The inside diameter of the neck was 1.18 mm. The filling of the diver was done at 37°. Five microliters of cell suspension with a total number of 5000 to 100 000 cells was placed at the bottom of the diver. The diver neck was then closed with three neck seals. The first seal consisted of 1.5  $\mu$ l of 0.15 N NaOH. This seal absorbed the CO<sub>2</sub> produced during respiration. The second seal was made of 1  $\mu$ l of paraffin oil which prevented the exchange of water between the interior of the diver and the flotation medium. The last seal placed at the mouth of the neck had the composition of the medium surrounding the diver. It formed the main obstruction to loss of gas through diffusion into the flotation medium. Furthermore by suitable choice of its volume it became the means of adjusting the initial equilibrium pressure of the diver to the desired value. In long term experiments with an initial oxygen concentration different from that of room air a cylindrical hollow glass stopper was inserted into the mouth seal the diameter of the stopper being a little less than the inside diameter of the diver neck. The specific gravity of the stopper was adjusted in such a way that it would just sink in the flotation medium. The stopper has been shown by Linderstrøm Lang and Holter (4) to be an effective means of reducing gas diffusion.

When a gas phase was wanted with controlled initial oxygen concentration the filling of the diver was done under water in a plastic gassing chamber. After the introduction of the cell suspension the desired mixture of  $O_2$  and  $N_2$  was led into the diver through a pipet.

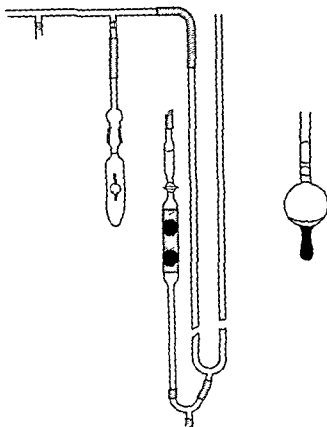


FIG. 1 Schematic drawing of diver and measuring apparatus

the tip of which was placed just above the surface of the bottom drop. After 20 minutes of flushing the air pipet was removed and the NaOH seal was inserted. The air pipet was then reintroduced into the diver neck so that the tip was just above the NaOH seal, and flushing was continued for 5 minutes. This procedure was repeated after the insertion of the oil seal and the mouth seal. Finally the diver was transferred to the flotation vessel which as flotation medium contained a solution of

$\text{NaNO}_3$  and  $\text{NaCl}$  with small amounts of  $\text{Na}$  taurocholate (1) The density of this solution was 1.326

The flotation vessel was located in a thermostat at  $37^\circ$  and connected with a manometer with a coarse and a fine screw by means of which the diver could be brought to float at a certain level controlled with a horizontal microscope. As respiration proceeded the pressure in the flotation vessel was lowered to make the diver float. On the basis of the manometric readings plotted against time the  $\text{O}_2$  consumption could be calculated from the formula developed by Linderstrøm Lang (3)

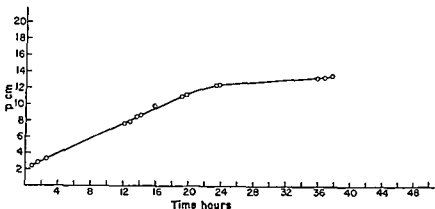


FIG. 2. Respiration of normal cells

After the experiment the neck seals were removed and the diver was filled with a balanced salt solution. A small stirrer was introduced into the diver and after careful stirring samples were removed for cell counting in a Burkner Turk counting chamber. With the volume of the diver known the total number of cells could be calculated and compared with counts of the cell suspension before the experiment.

## Results

Using the described methods we have followed the respiration of normal and leukemic leucocytes during varying periods of time. In the first experiment (Fig. 2) the respiration of normal leucocytes was followed for 38 hours. The cells were suspended in their own serum diluted with equal amounts of Tyrode's solution. The initial gas phase was room air. During the first 24 hours considerable oxygen consumption was observed. The amount of  $\text{O}_2$  consumed per cell per hour was  $6.74 \times 10^{-6} \mu\text{l}$ . After 24 hours however a decrease in respiration occurred. In order to show whether this could be explained by cell death

or nutritional deficiency the neck seals were aspirated after the removal of the diver from the flotation vessel. Thus room air was allowed into the diver. After careful cleaning of the diver neck new seals were inserted, and the experiment was repeated. It was found that the graph obtained during the second experiment was almost identical with the one from the first experiment. Thus the inhibition of respiration after 24 hours of

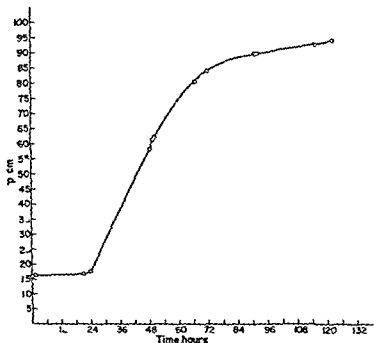


FIG. 3 Respiration of leukemic cells patient No. 1 acute leukemia

incubation seems to be related to changes in the gas phase. Since no changes of pH of the bottom drop could be detected and since pH of the NaOH seal remained above 10 the decrease of respiration could hardly be explained by an accumulation of  $\text{CO}_2$ . In agreement with this it was found that the inhibition could not be prevented by the use of 0.5 N NaOH.

Different graphs were obtained when the diver was charged with leukemic cells (Figs 3, 4 and 5). During the first 5 to 24 hours these cells showed a very low rate of respiration. This initial phase was followed by a period of intensive respiration lasting 1 to 2 days; however

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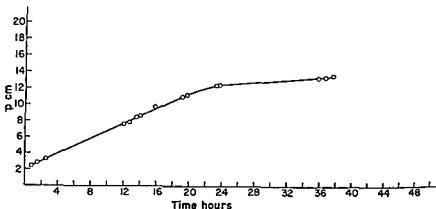


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the beginning of the experiment. When respiration had fallen off after 46 hours 13% of the oxygen had been consumed.

In order to obtain further evidence in favor of the assumed influence of oxygen tension on cell respiration a comparative study of respiration at different initial oxygen tensions was carried out. The results of such a study with cells from patient No. 3 are shown in Figs. 6-10.

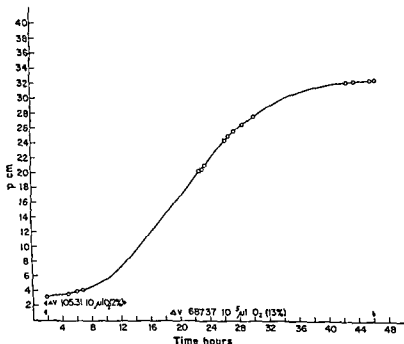


FIG. 5. Respiration of leukemic cells at room air patient No. 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia.

When the gas phase at the beginning of the experiment contained 5%  $O_2$  and 95%  $N_2$  only moderate respiration took place. The oxygen consumption per cell per hour was  $0.68 \times 10^6 \mu l$  (Fig. 6). When the initial oxygen concentration was 10% however respiration increased by a factor of 10, the oxygen consumption per cell per hour being  $6.30 \times 10^6 \mu l$  (Fig. 7). If the oxygen concentration was further increased a depression of respiration was observed. At 15% oxygen the oxygen consumption was  $1.41 \times 10^6 \mu l$  per cell per hour (Fig. 8). At room air it

after which oxygen consumption decreased again. Renewal of the gas phase with room air had the same effect as in the case of normal cells—i.e. respiration started again. Changes of pH or saturation of the NaOH seal could not be demonstrated. Thus the respiratory inhibition at the end of the experiments can hardly be explained by cell death, nutritional deficiency or CO intoxication.

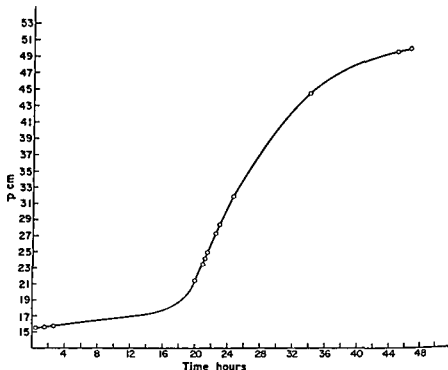


FIG. 4. Respiration of leukemic cells, patient No. 2, chronic myeloid leukemia.

If the results of these experiments are compared with Osgood's observations, variation in oxygen tension presents itself as a possible explanation of the S shape of the respiration curve of leukemic cells. It is conceivable that respiration may be inhibited by high oxygen tensions as well as low oxygen tensions. If this alone should explain the shape of the respiration curve of leukemic cells, the respiratory system of the latter must be extremely sensitive to variations in oxygen tension. In patient No. 3 (Fig. 5), maximal rate of respiration occurred after about 12 hours of incubation, at which time the cells had consumed a total of  $105.31 \times 10^3 \mu\text{l}$  of  $\text{O}_2$  or 2% of the oxygen present in the diver at

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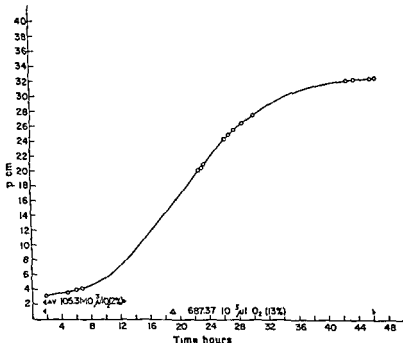


FIG. 5. Respiration of leukemic cells at room air patient No. 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia.

When the gas phase at the beginning of the experiment contained 5% O<sub>2</sub> and 95% N<sub>2</sub> only moderate respiration took place. The oxygen consumption per cell per hour was  $0.68 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  (Fig. 6). When the initial oxygen concentration was 10% however respiration increased by a factor of 10, the oxygen consumption per cell per hour being  $6.30 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  (Fig. 7). If the oxygen concentration was further increased a depression of respiration was observed. At 15% oxygen the oxygen consumption was  $1.41 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  per cell per hour (Fig. 8). At room air it



was  $0.40 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  (Fig 9) and at 30% oxygen only  $0.21 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  (Fig 10)

Similar results were obtained with other leukemic cells but not with normal leukocytes. In Table I the results obtained so far are sum-

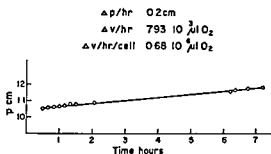


FIG 6 Respiration of leukemic cells at 5% O<sub>2</sub> + 95% N<sub>2</sub> patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

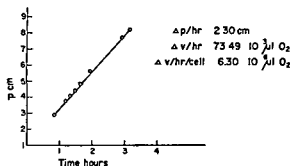


FIG 7 Respiration of leukemic cells at 10% O<sub>2</sub> + 90% N<sub>2</sub> patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

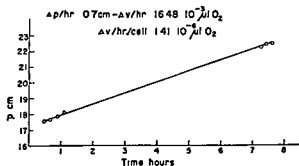


FIG 8 Respiration of leukemic cells at 15% O<sub>2</sub> + 85% N<sub>2</sub> patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

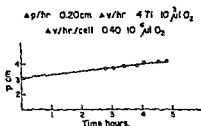


FIG 9 Respiration of leukemic cells at room air patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

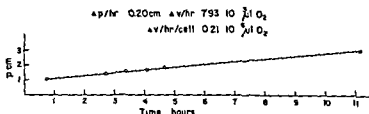


FIG 10 Respiration of leukemic cells at 30% O<sub>2</sub> + 70% N<sub>2</sub> patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

marized. It appears from the table that the O<sub>2</sub> consumption per normal leukocyte per hour is about ten times as high as that of leukemic cells at room air. Furthermore, it is seen that the respiration of normal leukocytes is independent of variations in oxygen concentration. In all three types of leukemia so far investigated, however, cell respiration was found to be influenced by oxygen tension. Maximal respiration was found at

TABLE I  
O<sub>2</sub> CONSUMPTION PER CELL PER HOUR AT VARIOUS O<sub>2</sub> TENSIONS  
( $\mu\text{l} \times 10^6$ )

Diagnosis	Case	Per cent O <sub>2</sub>				
		5	10	15	Room air	30
Acute stem cell leukemia	1	0.17	0.76		0.50	
	2				0.37	
	5				0.50	
Chronic myeloid leukemia	4	0.00	5.94		0.76	
	6				0.60	
Chronic lymphatic leukemia	3	0.68	6.50	1.41	0.40	0.21
Normal		6.10	6.93		6.74	6.33

was  $0.40 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  (Fig 9) and at 30% oxygen only  $0.21 \times 10^6 \mu\text{l}$  (Fig 10)

Similar results were obtained with other leukemic cells but not with normal leukocytes. In Table I the results obtained so far are sum-

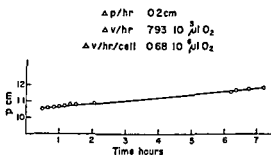


FIG 6 Respiration of leukemic cells at 5% O + 95% N patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

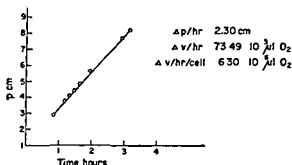


FIG 7 Respiration of leukemic cells at 10% O + 90% N patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

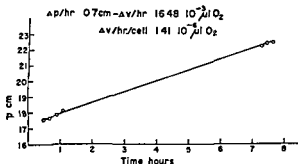


FIG 8 Respiration of leukemic cells at 15% O + 85% N patient No 3 chronic lymphatic leukemia

however. When after the initial phase of moderate respiration in patient No 3 (Fig 5) the increase of respiration occurred only 2% of the total oxygen had been consumed. Thus the oxygen concentration at this time was 19 to 20%. When respiration was at its maximum after 20 to 24 hours the oxygen concentration in the diver was 18%. The O consumption per cell per hour at this time was  $2.41 \times 10^{-6} \mu\text{l}$  as compared to  $6.30 \times 10^{-6} \mu\text{l}$  at 10% oxygen,  $1.41 \times 10^{-6} \mu\text{l}$  at 15% oxygen and  $0.40 \times 10^{-6} \mu\text{l}$  at room air (see Table I). This seems to indicate that too low values have been obtained in the short term experiments owing to the presence of an inhibiting factor which disappears in the course of the first 24 hours. Future research will have to clarify the nature of this factor. Finally when the respiration curve in patient No 3 leveled off after 46 hours of incubation the oxygen concentration was still 17% after a consumption of 13% of the initial amount of oxygen. It is likely that the same factors are responsible for the shape of the terminal part of the respiration curve of normal as well as of leukemic cells.

Although the experimental conditions under which the cells are kept in the Cartesian diver undoubtedly have a deciding influence on the shape of the respiration curve the influence of oxygen tension on respiration of leukemic cells is probably a more general phenomenon. The mechanism of this effect remains to be clarified. It is in all probability of enzymatic nature but it is not necessarily a direct effect on the respiratory enzymes. The action of the cytochrome system is known to be only slightly sensitive to variations in oxygen tension. The absence of these enzymes in leukemic cells may therefore be expected. A study of the cytochromes in leukemic cells has been commenced in collaboration with Dr K. M. Møller of the Carlsberg Laboratory. The preliminary results indicate that cytochromes are present in leukemic cells at least at small concentrations. This observation suggests that the oxygen sensitivity is due to the presence of an inhibitor rather than to the absence of the enzymes found in fully differentiated cells.

The sensitivity to variations in oxygen tension may be characteristic of all immature cells. It offers an explanation of the fact that mitotic figures are extremely rare in the circulating blood even in cases with numerous mitoses in the bone marrow. A parallel phenomenon is observed in some ascites tumors where mitotic figures are seen only in the peritoneum but not in cells suspended in the ascitic fluid. Furthermore the effect of fibroblasts on the growth of mouse leukemia *in vitro* should be evaluated with the oxygen sensitivity in mind. This effect may be due to a reduction of the oxygen tension in the immediate neighborhood of the leukemic cells. In support of this assumption it can be men-

10% oxygen At this concentration cellular respiration reached normal values in the case of chronic myeloid leukemia and chronic lymphatic leukemia The lower value obtained with cells from a case of acute stem cell leukemia may be explained by the fact that these cells had been grown in suspension in roller tubes for 10 days before their sensitivity to variations in  $O_2$  tension was studied This assumption is in agreement with observations made with a mouse carcinoma which showed a constant rate of respiration during one month when the cells were kept in an active state of proliferation in a clot in roller tubes When the cells were grown in suspension however cell multiplication stopped and respiration decreased at the same time After 2 weeks of incubation respiration had decreased by a factor of 10 In patient No 1 the oxygen consumption per cell per hour at room air was  $0.50 \times 10^{-6} \mu l$  when measured shortly after the blood aspiration from the patient After 10 days of incubation however the oxygen consumption was  $0.07 \times 10^{-6} \mu l$  per cell per hour

#### Discussion

From the experiments described above we can conclude that in contrast to normal leukocytes the respiration of leukemic leukocytes is dependent on the oxygen tension The optimal tension was obtained by decreasing the oxygen concentration by 50% as compared with that of room air At the optimal tension the respiration of leukemic cells is of the same order as that of normal cells but it decreases considerably at higher or lower oxygen tensions

Furthermore this study has shown that the shape of the respiration curve in long term experiments cannot be explained by variations in  $O_2$  tension alone Evidently the decrease in respiration of normal cells on the second day cannot be explained by a decrease in oxygen tension since this would not have any influence on the oxygen consumption by normal leukocytes As previously mentioned no accumulation of  $CO_2$  took place On the other hand a decrease of  $CO_2$  tension below a critical level may play a role This possibility will have to be studied by other methods than the Cartesian diver technique in which the complete absorption of  $CO_2$  by the NaOH seal is essential for the correct measurement of oxygen consumption The absence of pH changes in the bottom drop does not support the last mentioned hypothesis The colorimetric method used for pH determinations in these experiments may not have been sensitive enough however

Variations in oxygen tension have probably influenced the shape of the respiration curve of leukemic cells Other factors must be at work too

Observations on Human Leukemic Cells in Culture<sup>1</sup>

EDWIN E. OSGOOD

Division of Experimental Medicine University of Oregon  
Medical School Portland Oregon

The development of three methods of tissue culture based on gradient principles has made possible the long term culture of human leukemic cells isolated from blood (13 15) Because of limitations of time and space the observations recorded in these three references will not be repeated and it will be assumed that the reader has these papers available The observations reported in this paper have been made in collaboration with Mr John H Brooke and Mr James McNeese cytologists in the Division of Experimental Medicine who have done the culture work and most of the photography

All strains of hemic cells with the exception of the plasmocytic and thrombocytic series have now been isolated from blood and grown for periods long enough to exceed the life span of the differentiating cells which makes it seem improbable that a fixed tissue cell is necessary for the continued growth of any hemic series of cells At the time of writing however only the two strains of the monocytic series J 96 and J 111 are growing well enough for general distribution although strains of the granulocytic series isolated from chronic granulocytic leukemic blood J 113 J 115 J 118 and J 128 have been cultured for as long as 297 60 106 and 175+ days respectively when all but J 128 were lost due to a series of laboratory accidents such as contamination or defective thermostats J 128 is growing well at over 175 days and barring accident should be available for distribution within the next year These accidents have emphasized the importance of keeping replicate cultures in separate

<sup>1</sup> Aided in part by grant C-2350 from the National Institutes of Health U S Public Health Service and Contract AT(45-1) 581 from the U S Atomic Energy Commission

tioned that the growth promoting effect is obtained only if the inter space between leukemic cell and fibroblast is very small. Similarly the terminal stage of agranulocytosis seen in many cases of leukemia may be explained by the ousting of normal reticulum cells in the absence of which respiration of the leukemic cells decreases and cell multiplication stops.

Finally it should be pointed out that the present results are in agreement with Osgood's pioneer work. Further progress in the attempts to cultivate leukemic cells *in vitro* may be obtained by the introduction of a controlled gas phase.

### Acknowledgments

This study was carried out at the Cytochemical Division of the Carlsberg Laboratory in collaboration with the Fibiger Laboratory. The author wishes to thank Dr. and Mrs. Heinz Holter as well as Dr. K. Max Møller for their kind interest, helpful advice and generous assistance. Acknowledgment is made of the support received from the Lady Tata Memorial Foundation, the Anders Hasselbalch Anti Leukemia Fund, King Christian X's Memorial Fund and Holm's Fund.

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or without a long narrow cover slip inserted in the tube on which the cells may settle. This method has proved satisfactory for initial isolation of cells for it provides a gradient. It does not, however, permit calculation of the ideal gradient factor.

These two monocytic strains will now grow on almost any medium that is commonly used in tissue culture but we have been unable to determine any advantage of adding embryo extract to the media. Excellent growth is obtained on 20% horse serum, 20% horse serum ultrafiltrate, and 60% acetate balanced salt solution (15). Perhaps the simplest media on which they grow well is either 20% human pleural fluid filtered through a Corning ultrafine sintered glass filter or 20% horse serum with 80% acetate balanced salt solution (15). Dr. Robert N. Hull, in charge of the tissue culture research, Biological Research Division of Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, reports that the strain we sent him of J 96 shows very good growth on a medium of 5% horse serum with 95% Medium TC 199<sup>2</sup>. These cultures grow well on many different balanced salt solutions with 20 to 40% concentrations of human serum, human pleural fluid filtered or aseptically collected, or horse serum with or without TC 199. Sodium acetate appears to be a desirable ingredient of the medium and essential for successful lymphocytic cultures, but Tween 80 is definitely harmful to the lymphocytic series and causes leaks in the slide cap cultures by dissolving the beeswax used to seal the cover slip to the vial lip.

Slanted test tube cultures of these monocytic strains have been successfully shipped by air express with a label "Do Not Freeze" as far as Buffalo, New York, and Houston, Texas, and cultures have been transported by plane to the National Cancer Institute and by automobile from Portland to Galveston and survived the trip.

Both J 96 and J 111 retain their ability to phagocytose finely divided carbon (Plate I, Fig. 2).

The extreme pleomorphism of the cultures of the monocytic series of cells (Plate I, Fig. 3) persists to date. This pleomorphism is evident 24 to 48 hours after the cells are isolated. Awrrow and Timofejewsky (1) in 1914 were the first to demonstrate this. The literature on the formation of giant cells from monocytes in culture has been recently reviewed by Milton N. Goldstein (6). Some of the cells resemble fibroblasts so closely that one wonders if some of the cultured cells previously called fibroblasts may not actually have been derived from cells of the monocytic series, since cells of the monocytic series undoubtedly are widely

<sup>2</sup> Made by cutting No. 1 Goldseal 24 × 60-mm. cover slips longitudinally in half.

<sup>3</sup> Obtainable from Difco Laboratories, Detroit 1, Michigan.

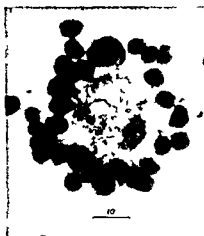


incubators not changing media on all cultures of the same strain from the same lot of medium at the same time and distributing the cells as widely as possible as soon as they are growing well

It has been observed that the patterns of growth are so different and develop so early in the gradient culture (see figures in references 14 and 15 and in this paper) that the gradient culture technique can be adapted to identification of the type cell of the acute leukemias and will give a definite answer within 24 to 48 hours. The leukemic cell if the gradient factor is properly adjusted outgrows the corresponding normal cell to such an extent that it indicates that there is a differential rate of multiplication in favor of the leukemic cell. The detailed evidence for these statements will be presented elsewhere.

The role of the gradient factor in controlling conditions necessary for successful cell growth has been confirmed in many different ways. For example, cultures either from cells over a year in culture or from freshly isolated cells set up by the inverted slide cap technique with replicates of the same cell count but a series of different depths may show optimal growth at one depth and yet show complete disappearance of the cells in shallower and deeper cultures. The same phenomenon may be observed if the depth is kept constant and the gradient factor is changed by varying the cell count. There are microenvironments on the gradient slide and in other types of cultures (see Plate I Fig 1 and its legend). Similar microenvironments may have much to do with the location of metastases within the body and in determining whether a malignant change in a cell or group of cells leads to the establishment of a malignant tumor or only to a cancer *in situ* which may ultimately regress. In other words there is an ecology of cells within the body as well as with in cultures. Although the two strains of cells which have been cultured longest were isolated from a so called myelomonocytic or Naegeli type J 96 and a typical Schillings type of monocytic leukemia J 111 they show essentially identical characteristics in culture and anything that is said or illustrated about one of these strains could be duplicated in comparable preparations of the other. This suggests that there may be no real difference between these forms of monocytic leukemia.

The longer these strains have been cultured the easier they are to grow. J 96 will have been two years in culture on April 7 1956 and J 111 on August 30 1956 and they now will grow well under any of the standard techniques of tissue culture. One of the simplest techniques of growing them is in a stationary  $19 \times 15$  cm test tube in a rack at an angle of 10 to 20 degrees with 10 ml or more of culture medium with



## PLATE I

All figures are from Wright's stains and the magnification is indicated on the figures

FIG 1 Photomicrograph of neutrophil myelocyte surrounded by lymphocytes from a gradient slide of culture J 107 removed on the sixth day after the culture was started from the blood of a patient with chronic lymphocytic leukemia. The field was selected from the zone between that for optimal growth of lymphocytes which resembled Fig 4 in reference 15 and the region higher on the slide with lower gradient factor which resembled Figs 7 and 8 in reference 14 to illustrate the presence of microenvironments in addition to the major gradient in these cultures

FIG 2 Photomicrograph to illustrate the ability of even the fibroblast like or reticulum cell like cells to phagocytose carbon. Culture J 111 from the blood of a patient with acute leukemic monocytic leukemia of the so called Schilling type 468 days after isolation and 48 hours after addition of finely divided carbon to a slanted test tube culture containing a narrow cover slip on which the cells could settle (cf Plate III Fig 2 which shows a replicate culture on the same day under phase microscopy)

FIG 3 Field from the gradient slide near the upper zone of good growth from culture J 111 made on the eighth day after isolation to illustrate that the extreme pleomorphism occurs very early. In this one field are several multinucleated giant cells resembling the Langhans and foreign body type and also mononuclear giant cells. The predominant cells resemble reticulum cells. There are some typical promonocytes such as were in the original blood and a few fibroblast like cells. These are the first type of cell to appear when cells of the monocytic series are cultured and are the predominant type of cell on this slide at intermediate gradient factors

FIG 4 Higher power photomicrograph from the same general area of the same slide as Fig 3 to show the typical nuclear morphology of the Langhans type giant cells. As many as 48 nuclei have been counted in some of these cells but cells with fewer nuclei were selected for photography because they show the nuclear detail better. Similar cells are found in both J 111 and J 96 cultures after more than 18 months in culture

usually reported but these phase preparations are unlikely to provide the optimum gradient factor for ideal growth. Further studies are certainly indicated with colchicine and with varying times and concentrations of exposure to a calcium binding EDTA solution to see if the time of mitosis in optimally growing cultures can be determined. Although accurate chromosome counts have not been possible in these preparations the majority of the cells in mitosis appear to have numbers and sizes of chromosomes approximating the usual human diploid number and size.

Phase microscopy reveals features of these cells not well shown in the fixed preparations. Not only are these cells variable in morphology shape and size but they also show an extraordinary variety of form and motion of pseudopodia size and number of nucleoli and intracytoplasmic granules inclusions and phagocytized particles (Plate II Figs 3 and 4 Plate III Figs 1-4). These together with the processes of phagocytosis pinocytosis and clasmatosis are shown even better in a time lapse phase moving picture<sup>4</sup>. This moving picture also shows a short sequence made at 41 days after isolation of the granulocytic leukemia culture J 118 which was subsequently lost owing to infection and a short sequence of the Maben adenocarcinoma of the bronchus cell after 710 days in culture which was isolated by Dr Arthur Frisch (5) illustrating the differences between monocytic and epithelial cultures and showing that the rotating nuclei appear in both but that the pseudopodia growth pattern and active secretion of mucus in the bronchogenic carcinoma are differentiating features in addition to the morphology and widely different gradient factors (15). In this moving picture oscillations of the mitotic apparatus (9) as a whole in dividing cells from culture J 96 are demonstrated.

These monocytic leukemia cultures are now being used by others for numerous diverse studies.

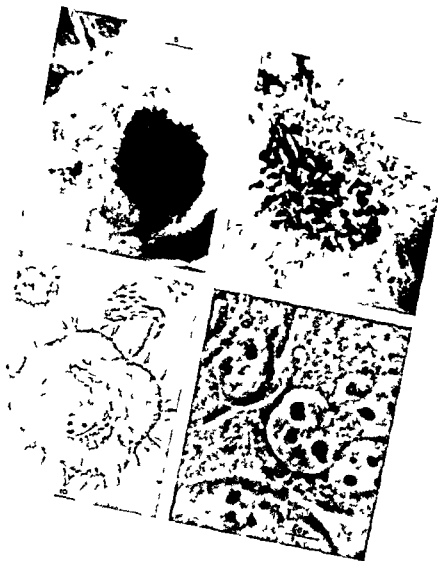
We are indebted to Dr Joseph Leighton (8) of the National Cancer Institute for the preparations from which the photomicrographs on Plate IV were made. Note that Fig 1 of Plate IV resembles a section from reticulum cell sarcoma but in the center of the marked area are nucleated cells of the erythrocytic series which is further evidence of the importance of the microenvironment because the erythrocytic series requires the highest gradient factor of all cell series so far studied. Some might regard this as evidence that the monocytic series can give rise to

<sup>4</sup> Made by John Brooke using the facilities of Dr C M Pomerat's laboratory at the University of Texas at Galveston through the courtesy of Doctor Pomerat and his staff and shown after presentation of this paper.

distributed throughout the tissues (12). These and the cells resembling the tissue histiocyte or reticulum cell are the predominant cells in these cultures but cells resembling Langhans' foreign body giant cells and Dorothy Reed cells are very common (Plate I Figs 3 and 4 Plate II Figs 1 and 2 and Figs 3 to 8 in reference 14). Nearly all the types of giant cells so well described and pictured by Rebeck (16) which might be derived from histiocytic or monocytic tissue are seen in these cultures. The particular form the cell takes seems to be a function of the micro environment and of the amount and character of the material available for phagocytosis. It is noteworthy that the Langhans' type giant cells are commonest near the surface where there may be floating lipid material and near the bottom of the gradient slide where there may be disintegrating debris rich in lipids. When the cells are sparse the fibroblast like form seems to be the preferred pattern. Where cells are thickly aggregated the epithelioid and reticulum cell forms predominate.

Whether fusion of cells or endomitosis with polyploidy or polyteny is the mechanism of production of these giant cells remains to be determined when we have cultures started from a single cell followed by time lapse photomicrography. We have not as yet however observed the fusion of cells which Goldstein (6) mentions but have seen polyploidy (Plate II Fig 1) and polyteny (Plate II Fig 2). We have noted more than once a *single* one of many nuclei within a giant cell in mitosis and also multiple metaphase plates within a single giant cell.

Studies of the mitotic process in these cells have shown a wide range of chromosome number and morphology but the most puzzling feature has been the relative paucity of visible mitoses in stained preparations. Even in the slide cap preparations (14) where the total number of cells increased by 7.6 times between 25 hours and 120 hours mitoses were scarce. The cover slip with colchicine from which Figs 1 and 2 of Plate II were derived was covered as solidly with cells as the slide shown in Fig 3 of Plate I but mitoses were abundant in only a relatively narrow zone near one end of the cover slip. Most of the smears from the supernatant of bulk cultures have also shown relatively few mitoses but one bulk culture of J 96 in which calcium EDTA and disodium EDTA had been used to free the cells stuck to the glass showed great numbers of mitoses. Whether this means that calcium binding by disodium EDTA can arrest mitoses or whether mitoses occur in waves in these cultures is as yet unknown. The most plausible explanation seems to be that mitosis requires much less time under ideal conditions than in the usual type of preparation used for timing mitosis. We have timed mitosis in living phase preparations in J 96 cells at 57 minutes which is of the order



## PLATE II

Figures 1 and 2 are Giemsa stains and Figs 3 and 4 are phase photomicrographs

FIG 1 Polyploid mitosis in a giant cell culture J 96 from a cover slip preparation in a slanted test tube 20 hours after addition of sufficient colchicine to make the final concentration 1:300,000 and 555 days after isolation from the blood of a patient with so called Naegli type of acute monocytic leukemia

FIG 2 A probably polytene metaphase of mitosis in a giant cell from the same preparation as Fig 1

FIG 3 Mononucleated giant cell from culture J 96 photographed with phase on day 401 of the culture with sharp focus on the microfibrillae type of pseudopodia which show active wavelike movements in time lapse moving pictures Note also the more rounded pseudopodia and clasmatosis in the smaller cell in the same field which more closely resemble the pseudopodia seen in promonocytes freshly isolated from blood

FIG 4 Phase photomicrograph at high magnification of an area of dense growth similar to those illustrated in Figs 3-6 of reference 14 from culture J 96 after 613 days in culture with sharp focus on the huge nucleoli of cells resembling reticulum cells and Dorothy Reed cells





## PLATE III

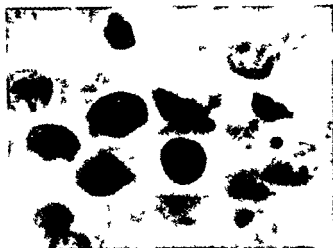
Phase photomicrographs of living cultures from the blood of acute monocytic leukemia in the presence of finely divided carbon to show different phases of the ingestion of the carbon particles and the extreme variation in the form of the pseudopodia even from the same cell

FIG 1 Group of reticulum cell sarcoma like cells growing in close approximation to each other shown at relatively low magnification. Most of the granules within the cells are the normal intracytoplasmic granules of the cells but the larger particles and particularly the particles near the end of the longer pseudopod at the top of the picture are recently ingested carbon particles. This photomicrograph was made only a few minutes after the carbon was added to the culture but at 610 days after culture J 96 was isolated from the blood

FIG 2 Culture J 111 468 days after isolation and 48 hours after addition of carbon to the culture showing two cells in close apposition one of which has accumulated much carbon in the perinuclear area. Note in addition to the two long pseudopodia which extend out of the picture the numerous finer and smaller pseudopodia along the upper and lower margins of the cells. Why two such similar healthy appearing cells in such close apposition have accumulated such widely different amounts of carbon is not easy to explain. The great majority of the cells in this preparation had amounts of carbon comparable to that in the lower cell (cf Plate I Fig 2 which is a replicate preparation stained with Wright's stain)

FIG 3 Small group of cells from the same preparation as Figs 1 and 4 in this plate photographed a little longer after the carbon was added than in Fig 1 to show a somewhat later phase in the ingestion of the carbon particles and to illustrate the wide variety of pseudopodia. The type of pseudopodia seen projecting toward the bottom of the picture—broad fingerlike processes—are usually the first to be noted after the mount is made. Note at the top of the picture the numerous carbon particles along the long slender pseudopodia at various stages of migration toward the center of the cell. The fine hairlike pseudopodia to the right of these are similar to the microfibrillae shown on the giant cell in Plate II Fig 3 to the left and right are branched pseudopodia shown better in Fig 4 of this plate. At the upper right are more rounded pseudopodia or wavy membranes of the type more commonly associated with the promonocyte of the blood

FIG 4 Another photograph of culture J 96 from the same preparation as Figs 1 and 2 made at 610 days with sharp focus on the branched pseudopodia. This reveals the extremely fine branching at the tips of these pseudopodia which was not visible to the naked eye. Note also the rounded wavy membrane types of pseudopodia with pinocytosis and the clasmotosis occurring in these same cells. All this fine detail is lost in fixed preparations but may be even more dramatically seen in time lapse moving pictures



## PLATE IV

We are indebted to Dr. Joseph Leighton (8) of the National Cancer Institute for permission to use these photomicrographs made by John Brooke in this publication. Dr. Leighton sent us hematoxylin eosin stained sections which he prepared from a culture of J 96 grown by his cellulose sponge technique. The cells had been cultured for a year in our laboratory before he received them.

FIG. 1. Low power view of a section of a cell clump growing in the interstices of the cellulose sponge. Note the resemblance to reticulum cell sarcoma and note particularly the marked area shown at higher magnification in Fig. 2 in which nucleated cells of the erythrocytic series are seen. This is another example of the presence of microenvironments as such nucleated erythrocytes were found only in the center of such areas of dense growth. We interpret this as being due to the high gradient factor required by the erythrocytic series.

FIG. 2. Marked area of Fig. 1 shown at higher magnification to demonstrate the typical nuclear morphology of the rubricyte near the center of the field and the pyknotic nucleus of the metarubricyte near the top of the field. Note also that there are no intermediate stages between the reticulum cell forms and the nucleated erythrocytic series.

culture. They adhere to each other and to the glass so firmly that this has prevented the accumulation of some of the types of quantitative data we should like to have. The best method we have found so far is the addition of disodium EDTA to give a final concentration of 150 mg per 100 ml 30 minutes before the culture is shaken and sampled. This technique gives beautiful morphology and counts but even if the medium is washed from the cells as soon as possible it does impair subsequent growth though not prevent it. It also prevents using the pre-conditioned medium from the culture as part of the new medium for the subcultures. We are concentrating our efforts on the problem of culturing other leukemic strains from blood until they are sufficiently adapted to cultural conditions to be easily grown by others. We have had several strains of chronic granulocytic leukemia out almost to this stage and then lost them. We now have another culture J 128 out at over 175 days which we hope can soon be made available to others. We have not been able to separate normal monocytic series from the granulocytic cells however since the gradient factor of the monocytic series completely overlaps that of the granulocytic series. Possibly we can accomplish this separation by single cell isolation or by the use of finely divided iron filings. The plasmocytic series offers promise of being the easiest of all to grow but we have no cases of plasmocytic leukemia at present. The lymphocytic and erythrocytic series offer much more difficult problems because of their high gradient factors. It may be that we will have to grow them in combination with J 111 or J 96 in a way comparable to the successful animal lymphocytic cultures obtained by Bichel (2) and de Bruyn (3). We do have definite evidence (Plate IV, Fig. 2 and similar cells in smears from gradient bulk cultures of J 96 and J 111) that cells of the erythrocytic series have persisted with good morphology and in all stages from the rubriblast to the mature erythrocyte in our cultures for over a year but to date they have always been very scarce relative to the number of cells of the monocytic series in these cultures. We have no facilities for electron microscopic studies but Formvar films placed in the bottom of inverted slide cap cultures would enable one to examine these well spread-out cells *in situ* and might reveal much of interest.

We have done no work with purely synthetic media and we have not as yet any comparable normal strain of the monocytic series although we have noted monocytic cells growing in every blood culture of each type of leukemia so far studied so that it seems certain that they can be isolated by similar technique from normal blood. Attempts to isolate and culture the thrombocytic series have not as yet been made as

cells of the erythrocytic series but we were unable in any of the sections or in any of our other cultures in which we have also found nucleated erythrocytes to see any cells intermediate between the reticulum cell type and the nucleated erythrocytic series and it must be remembered that there were nucleated erythrocytes as well as immature cells of the granulocytic series in the initial blood from which these cells were cultured (14) Only when cultures derived from single identified cells of the monocytic or histiocytic series have been made and studied can this point be settled with certainty Doctor Leighton also reports and has sent us preparations showing good growth on fragmented Gelfoam and he regards this as one of the best methods of maintaining these strains

Dr Harry Eagle (4) at the National Cancer Institute is studying the amino acid requirements of J 111

Dr Arthur Frisch and collaborators (5) of the Bacteriology Department at the University of Oregon Medical School have shown that these monocytic cultures support the growth of the three standard strains of poliomyelitis virus and show typical cytopathogenic effects but will not support the multiplication of influenza or mumps virus Dr Robert N Hull (personal communication) of Eli Lilly and Company is also studying the place of J 111 and J 96 in virus research Dr Milton N Goldstein (6) of the Roswell Park Memorial Institute Buffalo New York is studying giant cell production in cultures of these cells Dr T C Hsu of the M D Anderson Hospital Houston Texas in collaboration with Dr Paul Morehead is studying the mitotic pattern and chromosome morphology of J 111 and J 96 by the hypotonic medium technique (7)

Dr Joseph Burchenal (personal communication) of the Memorial Hospital and Sloan Kettering Institute reports that he has strain J 111 growing well in hamster cheek pouches using cortisone pre treated hamsters as employed by Toolan in her outstanding work (17)

There are still many things to be done with these cultures We have not as yet studied the various antileukemic chemotherapeutic agents We have not determined which of the various conditions (oxygen tension oxidation reduction potential conditioning of medium removal of mature cells) regulated by the gradient factor are the most important but apparently all of them are of some importance We have not been able to define more quantitatively what the ideal oxidation reduction potential or oxygen tension is We have not been able to devise a quantitative definition of when medium should be changed or subcultures made

Our most baffling problem has been to get a uniform suspension of separate cells and still preserve the cells in good condition for sub

7 Cell morphology may be a less effective criterion of cell identification than such features as growth pattern character of pseudopodia and histochemical tests. Response to various stimuli under phase contrast time lapse moving pictures might tell us even more about the character of the cells under investigation.

8 Great variety of pseudopodia growth patterns and striking phagocytic ability for finely divided carbon particles have been demonstrated in cells presumably of the monocytic series.

9 Time lapse moving pictures reveal rotation of nuclei oscillations of the mitotic apparatus pinocytosis and clasmatosis in these same cells.

10 It is hoped that the availability of these easily grown hemic cells unencumbered by supporting tissues will prove valuable to others in studies of such widely divergent fields as nutrition and metabolism chemotherapy of malignancies virology bacteriology and mechanisms of immunity and resistance and make possible studies of the contributions of hemic cells to the composition of their environment.

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thrombocytic leukemias are scarce and because the question could always arise if marrow were used of whether the strain cultured might not have been derived from a fixed tissue cell. We feel that our early observation (11) that cells of the thrombocytic series appear to grow better in plasma than in serum may be of help in such cultures when suitable material becomes available.

It is easy to devise enough investigations using these cells to keep many persons busy for a lifetime and we are always glad to aid anyone in getting started on work with these cell strains—J 111 and J 96 now available for distribution and other strains as they become available. The initial isolation of such strains is still far from simple as many cells disintegrate before the gradient factor has become established and the living cells start multiplication. The ideal gradient factor for starting a culture is not the gradient of optimal cell growth but the lowest gradient factor which will permit cell growth if maximum increment in number is to be obtained before it is necessary to change medium or subculture either of which disturbs the gradient. The development of a chemostat like device (10) with a series of automatic controls governing oxygen tension, oxidation-reduction potential and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and regulating the rate of medium exchange would seem to be the solution to mass production but it still remains far in the future.

### Summary

1. Further observations on human cells isolated from the blood of patients with acute monocytic leukemia and now in culture for over 18 months (J 111) and 22 months (J 96) are presented.

2. These observations lend further support to the view that the histiocytic and monocytic series are one and the same.

3. They emphasize the extreme pleomorphism of cells of this series and illustrate production of multinuclear and mononuclear giant cells of various types. Our studies would favor the view that these giant cells result from endomitosis with polyploidy or polyteny rather than from fusion of cells.

4. They emphasize the close relationship of monocytic leukemia with reticulum cell sarcoma and Hodgkin's disease.

5. A fixed tissue cell does not appear necessary for long term growth of hemic cells.

6. Gradient principles appear to be important in all phases of tissue culture and more consideration should be given in our thinking to microenvironments and the ecology of cells within the human body as well as in cultures.

## Newer Concepts of Leukopoiesis as Revealed by Leukopheretic and Isotopic Techniques<sup>1</sup>

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University of California at Los Angeles, California

The quantitative removal of circulating leukocytes by recirculation of the experimental animals blood devoid of these cells has helped clarify the interrelationship of reserve and circulating leukocytes. The technique employed has been simple, reproducible, and may be repeated many times without injury to the animal. The details of the procedure (leukopheresis) have been described elsewhere (1).

If a normal dog's leukocytes are removed rapidly (i.e., the clearance of leukocytes from 1 to 2 blood volumes per hour for 2 to 3 hours) the response shown in Fig. 1 is observed. Leukopenia of about 1000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> is easily attained. It is not possible to lower the count below this point despite prolonged leukopheresis. Initially it was thought this was because the clearance of leukocytes was imperfect and certain numbers were being returned. Subsequent evidence has shown that the inability to reduce this "floor" results from an increased rate of entry of leukocytes during this period. The failure of the leukocyte count to begin to rise immediately after cessation of the procedure is due to an accelerated distribution of leukocytes to the tissues. This period of sustained leukopenia is always observed if marked reduction in circulating

<sup>1</sup> This work was done in collaboration with Drs. John S. Lawrence, Seymour Perry, and Irwin Weinstein, with the technical assistance of Miss Mary Baker and Miss Gloria Paul from the Department of Medicine, UCLA Medical Center, and the Hematology Research Laboratory, Wadsworth General Hospital, Los Angeles, California. This work was supported in part by grants from Parke Davis & Co. and the U. S. Public Health Service and the Gladys Bowyer Foundation.

<sup>2</sup> Associate Professor of Medicine, on leave of absence with the Armed Forces. Present address: U. S. Army Hospital, Fort Ord, California.

<sup>3</sup> We are indebted to Dr. Norman Simmons for the method of DNA extraction.





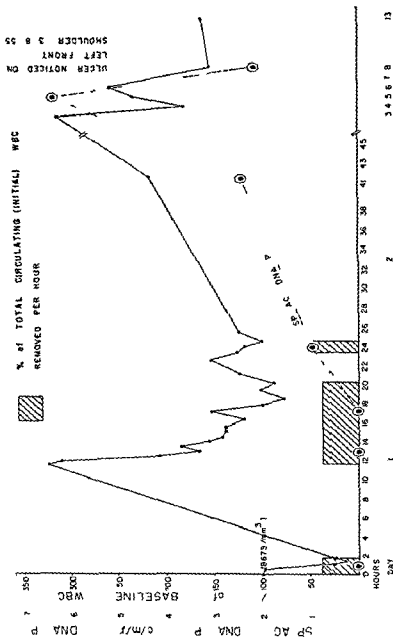


Fig. 2. Prolonged leukopheresis in a normal dog instituted during the period of accelerated entry of leukocytes into the circulation blood (phase II) after a previous acute leukopheresis. In this case 1% was administered at time 0. Note the delayed appearance of cells with labeled DNA. Dog 36-02. Continuous exchange—500  $\mu$ c.  $P_{10}$  given one hour before exchange. Total circulating WBC (initial) 1,909  $\times 10^6$ . Total WBC removed 7,694  $\times 10^6$ . Wt 46 lbs. Blood Vol 2.20 liters. Date 2-23-55.

cells has been brought about no matter how long the leukopheresis is continued. Conversely, it is not observed if only moderate degrees of leukopenia are induced.

Once the leukocyte level in the circulation begins to rise, it does so in a linear fashion, reaching a point 150 to 300% above baseline in the next 6 to 8 hours. Cells continue to pour into the circulation at this

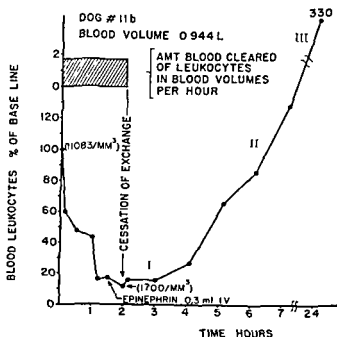


FIG. 1 Diagram of typical response to a single acute leukopheresis in normal dogs

greatly augmented rate until a certain maximum (which varies from animal to animal) has been reached. If leukopheresis is reinstituted during phase II, leukocytes may be removed at greater speeds and in far greater numbers for long periods of time without effecting a serious leukopenia. Figure 2 shows such an experiment in which some five times the number of cells circulating are removed during a prolonged leukopheresis (77 billion). The data on specific activity of leukocyte DNA  $P^3$  shown in this figure further indicate the size of the marrow reserve of mature myeloid leukocytes. Thus cells which began to incorporate  $P^3$  into DNA at time 0 did not begin to appear in the circulation until after the removal of the bulk of cells by leukopheresis. This fact will be elaborated on subsequently.

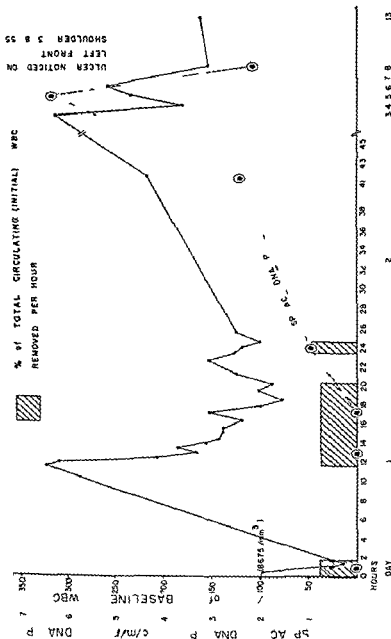


FIG. 2. Prolonged leukopheresis in a normal dog instituted during the period of accelerated entry of leukocytes into the circulation blood (phase II) after a previous acute leukopheresis. In this case 1<sup>st</sup> was administered at time 0. Note the delayed appearance of cells with thick DNA. Day 36-42. Continuous echin<sub>90</sub> 500  $\mu$ c/l; given one hour before, or change. Total circulating WBC (initial)  $1.909 \times 10^6$ . Total WBC removed  $1.7694 \times 10^{10}$ . Wt 46 lbs. Blood Vol 2.20 liters. Date 2-3-55.

The leukocytosis occurring after leukopheresis involves neutrophilic leukocytes exclusively. Total lymphocyte counts either fall or remain unchanged. A finding which was unexpected and hard to reconcile at first was the absence of a left shift in the differential counts even after prolonged and repeated leukopheresis. The leukocytosis after leukopheresis involves mature granulocytes. Serial bone marrow studies in dogs subjected to repeated leukopheresis revealed a slowly developing

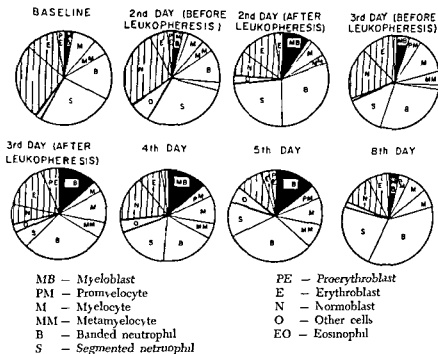


FIG 3 Bone marrow differential cell counts in a normal dog subjected to repeated leukopheresis

myeloid hyperplasia reaching a maximum at 5 days. Figure 3 shows this in terms of the M/E ratio. These facts together with our inability to deplete normal dogs to the point where they failed to develop a leukocytosis substantiate the concept put forth by Osgood (2) and others (3) that the circulating mass of leukocytes is a small fraction of the total body mass of these cells.

It is interesting to compare the response of normal dogs to irradiated animals. Figure 4 shows a normal animal leukopheresed on three successive days. The repeated development of leukocytosis in fact at an increasingly rapid rate is apparent. Figure 5 shows the response in a

dog exposed to LD<sub>51</sub> irradiation 1 hour prior to leukopheresis (250 r). The initial response is similar to the normal. In fact close comparison of the initial leukocytosis in many animals reveals it to be identical with the normal when expressed in terms of per cent change from baseline. Subsequent responses become less and less adequate. Although a rapid rise in leukocyte count may occur the maximum level attained becomes progressively lower. This fall in the level of maximum leukocytosis after

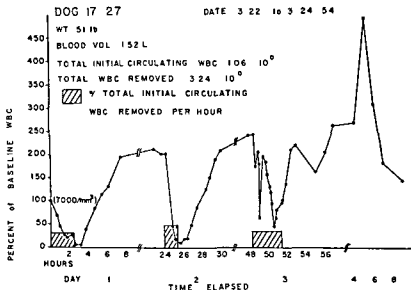


FIG 4 The response in a normal dog to repeated leukopheresis. Note that the maximum blood leukocyte level after each leukopheresis is about the same. Also note that the final marked leukocytosis occurs gradually over a period of days rather than hours.

leukopheresis is of considerable interest and correlates roughly with the marrow content of leukocytes.

Figure 6 compares the response in two normal dogs (one receiving large doses of chloromycetin) with a dog exposed to 125 r of whole body  $\gamma$  irradiation. A characteristic of the normal response to repeated leukopheresis is the slow development of an even greater leukocytosis reaching a maximum on the fifth day (Fig 7). This is the point of maximum marrow myeloid hyperplasia. This response, which is closely parallel from one normal dog to another, is absent in irradiated animals. This leukocytosis, which occurs after the stimulus to rapid leukocytosis has

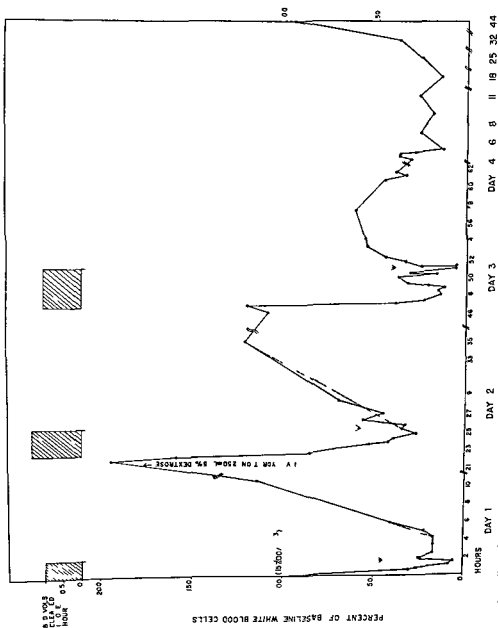


FIG. 5 The response in a dog exposed to LD<sub>50</sub> whole body x irradiation 1 hour prior to the first leucopenic phase (The dose of 250 r is deleted from two subsequent irradiations from 1 hour in 1 central phase. The dose has been found to represent the LD<sub>50</sub> in given animals. Day -3 30 hr 1 test-LD 50 Wt 33 lbs. Blood V 1.147L. Day 4 20 to 4 22 54

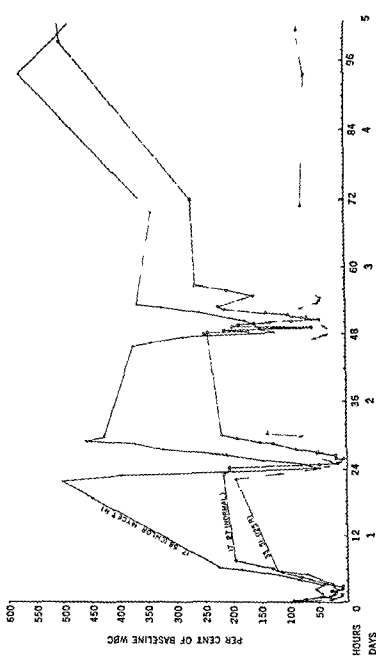


FIG. 6 The comparative response in two normal dogs (one receiving chloromycetin which does not affect the normal response) and an animal subjected to 1.5 r of whole body x-irradiation 1 hour before time 0. This dose results in leukopenia and thrombocytopenia about 2 weeks after exposure in the average dog not subjected to leukopenia vs. Note the absence of delayed leukocytosis in this animal.



ceased seems a different phenomenon from the immediate leukocytosis after leukopheresis. It involves primarily increased volume of leukocyte production.

The leukocyte response to leukopheresis has been spoken of as though it involves cells released from the marrow. This conclusion was reached only after the burden of evidence pointed toward this concept. One

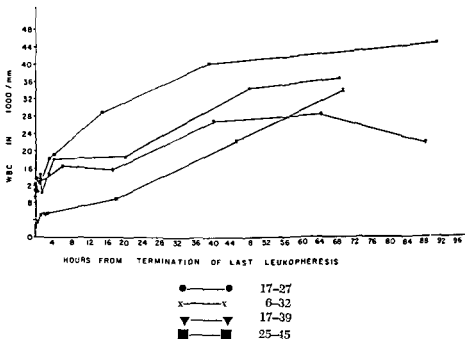


FIG 7 The delayed gradual leukocytosis in four normal dogs after leukopheresis on the three preceding days. The starting point here is at the cessation of leukopheresis on the third day.

other possible source of leukocytes contributing to the leukocytosis after depletion is redistribution of cells from areas of sequestration as in the spleen and lung. Intravenous epinephrine failed to alter the response however. Furthermore splenectomized animals behaved as normal as is shown in Fig 8.

The other potential source is re entry of leukocytes from extravascular spaces. The evidence against this phenomenon is twofold. First animals rendered severely leukopenic by irradiation and repeated leukopheresis (ie Fig 5) when autopsied displayed many leukocytes at areas of inflammatory reaction in the lung and intestine but practically none in the marrow or vascular channels. These extravascular leuko-

cytes must have migrated to these areas before the animal became leukopenic and failed to re enter the circulation at least in sufficient numbers to sustain the leukocyte count at even a low level. Second isotope experiments point to the marrow as the chief reservoir of mature leukocytes taking part in this phenomenon.

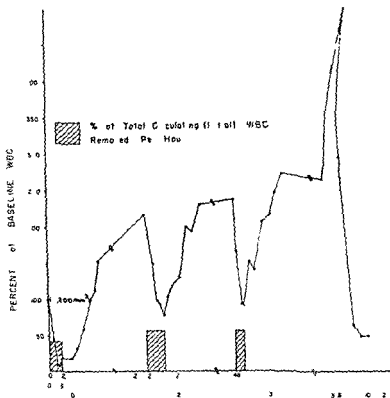


FIG. 8. The response of a normal dog splenectomized several months earlier to repeated leukapheresis. Dog 115 (splenectomized). Total circulating WBC (initial)  $12 \times 10^{10}$ . Total WBC removed  $3.374 \times 10^{10}$ . Wt 32 lbs. Blood Vol 16.3 liters. Date 1-3-55 to 1-5-55.

We have employed a method of extraction of leukocyte DNA which in our hands has been far superior to the Schmidt Thannhauser principal.<sup>4</sup> The DNA was of a high degree of purity as shown by the chromatograph in Fig. 9. The method involves the precipitation of nucleoprotein from isolated leukocyte nuclei by sodium dodecyl sulfate

at high concentration and subsequent precipitation of DNA at low concentration and acid pH

In dogs the appearance of leukocytes whose DNA is labeled with  $P^{32}$  follows the pattern shown in Fig 10. The maximum specific activity in normal animals is attained between the fourth and fifth day as shown in Fig 11. This means that a period of 3 days elapses after administra-

SOLVENT BOUNDARY

THYMINE →

URACIL →

CYTOSINE →

ADENINE →

GUANINE →

START →



FIG 9 The comparative purity of leukocyte DNA prepared by the Simmons method (*left*) with a sample of virus DNA prepared by the Schmidt Thannhauser method (*right*)

tion of the isotope before leukocytes mature from the stage where they are capable of incorporating the  $P^{32}$  into DNA and move out into the circulation. During this time a high differential exists between the labeled marrow leukocytes and the unlabeled peripheral leukocytes. Repeated leukopheresis or injections of typhoid bacilli intravenously early in this period will cause a somewhat earlier entry of labeled cells into the circulation (Fig 12). If leukopheresis is performed at the end of this period before the specific activity of DNA phosphorus has risen in the blood leukocytes there is observed a sharp rise in specific activity immediately after the procedure (Fig 13). This indicates that the bulk of cells contributing to the leukocytosis after leukopheresis came from the marrow.

The concept of a large marrow reserve of mature leukocytes available for rapid entry into the circulation on demand would seem well established. The role of this reservoir in the physiology of leukocytosis is

clearly shown in the response to leukopheresis. Acceleration of leukocyte production by hyperplasia of leukocyte progenitors in the bone marrow required some 3 to 5 days. The marrow leukocyte reserve

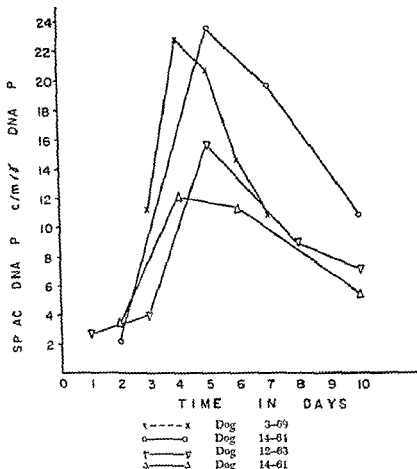


FIG 10 The rate of appearance of leukocytes with  $P^{32}$  labeled DNA in four normal dogs (ordinate expressed as counts per minute per microgram DNA phosphorus)

supplies the need for more cells in the interim before this increased leukopoiesis occurs

Experiments in animals whose marrow leukocyte reserve has been depleted as by previous exposure to  $\gamma$  irradiation indicate that the size

at high concentration and subsequent precipitation of DNA at low concentration and acid pH

In dogs the appearance of leukocytes whose DNA is labeled with  $P^{32}$  follows the pattern shown in Fig 10. The maximum specific activity in normal animals is attained between the fourth and fifth day as shown in Fig 11. This means that a period of 3 days elapses after adminis-

#### SOLVENT BOUNDARY

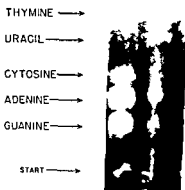


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leukocyte DNA P<sup>32</sup> specific activity indicates that the bulk of cells entering the blood after intravenous typhoid came from the labeled marrow reservoir. It is noteworthy that the rise began during the leukopenic state again indicating that the accelerated release of cells from the marrow had already begun.

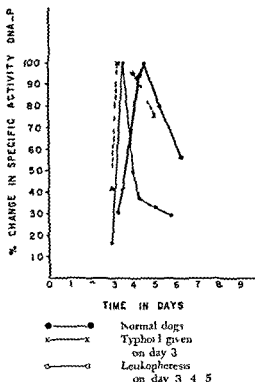


FIG. 12. The effect of repeated leukopheresis and typhoid vaccine in accelerating the peak of maximum specific activity of circulating leukocyte DNA P<sup>32</sup>. Here the ordinate is expressed as per cent change in specific activity.

Figure 16 compares the leukocyte response after repeated leukopheresis and that after repeated intravenous typhoid. The general similarity of response is evident as is the sharp increment in specific activity of leukocyte DNA P<sup>32</sup> on the third and fourth days. The lack of significant rise in specific activity on the fifth day is consistent with the fact that the marrow leukocyte reservoir is no longer more highly labeled than peripheral leukocytes.

of the marrow reservoir can be estimated by the response to leukopheresis (Fig 14). It will be seen that the general response to leukopheresis follows the same pattern in this severely depleted animal as in the normal. The height of the maximum leukocyte level attained after the procedure is much lower than in the normal animal however. This and other similar experiments suggest that the height of leukocytosis

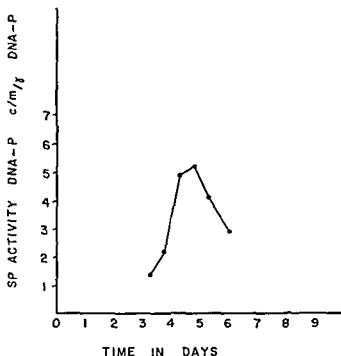


FIG 11 The curve of specific activity of DNA P<sub>3</sub> in a normal dog with observations made at close intervals during the period of maximal specific activity. The peak specific activity is on the afternoon of the fourth day.

after leukopheresis depends on the numerical size of the marrow reservoir.

Recent data obtained in our laboratory by my associates Drs Seymour Perry and Irwin Weinstein indicate that other methods of producing transient leukopenia followed by leukocytosis cause the release of cells from the marrow reservoir of leukocytes. Figure 15 shows the response of the blood leukocytes to intravenous typhoid vaccine. The leukopenia followed by a rapidly developing leukocytosis is in most experiments remarkably similar to the pattern after leukopheresis. The rapid rise in

leukocyte DNA  $P^{32}$  specific activity indicates that the bulk of cells entering the blood after intravenous typhoid came from the labeled marrow reservoir. It is noteworthy that the rise began during the leukopenic state again indicating that the accelerated release of cells from the marrow had already begun.

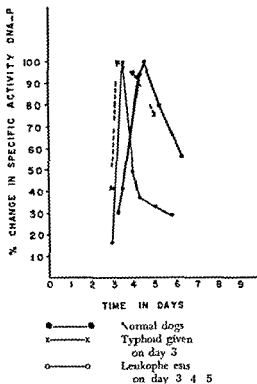


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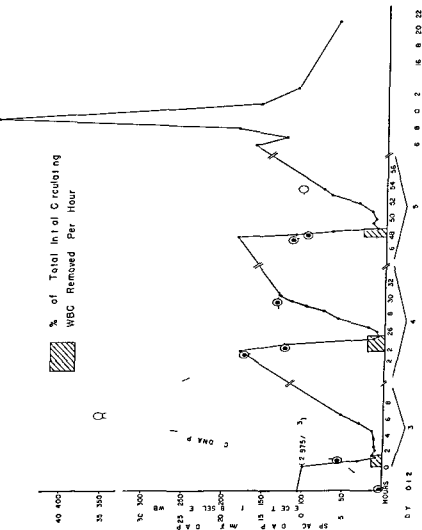


FIG 13 Leukopheresis initiated at the end of the period when a high differential exists between marrow and blood leukocyte DNA p3 specific activity. The sharp rise in blood leukocyte DNA 13 after the initial leukopheresis indicates the circulating cells have come from the marrow. Dog 20 72 Given 500  $\mu$ c p3 three days before exchange Total circulating WBC (in  $\mu$ l) 2 917  $\times$  10<sup>10</sup> Total WBC removed 2 450  $\times$  10<sup>10</sup> Wt 34 lbs Blood Vol - 167 ltrs Date 5 16 55 to 5 19 55

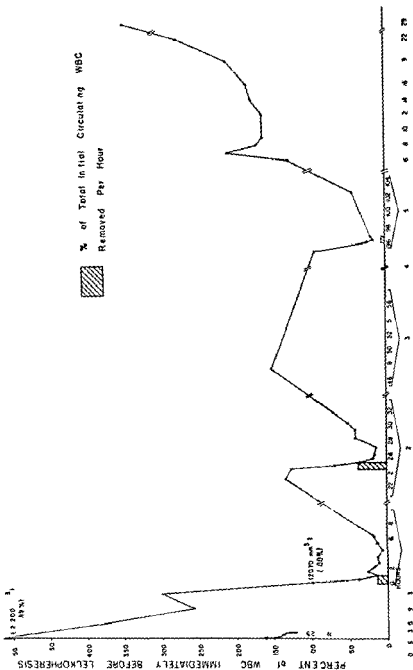


FIG. 14. The response to repeated leukopheresis in a dog rendered leukopenic by previous exposure to 125 r of whole body irradiation. Note that the 100% leukocyte count is 2070 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>.  $Do_{50}$  35.71. Irradiate 1 with 125 R 15 days before exchange. Total circulating WBC (initial)  $0.33 \times 10^6$ . Total WBC removed 0.16,  $\times 10^6$ . Wt. 35 lbs. Blood Vol. 1.6 liters. Date 5-5-55 to 5-9-55.

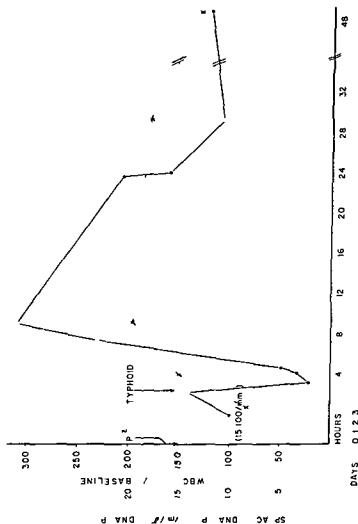


FIG 15 The response to intravenous typhoid of a normal dog given 500  $\mu$ c of pa 3 days earlier. Note the similarity of both leukocyte count and DNA 1<sup>st</sup> specific activity to the response after leishmaniasis.

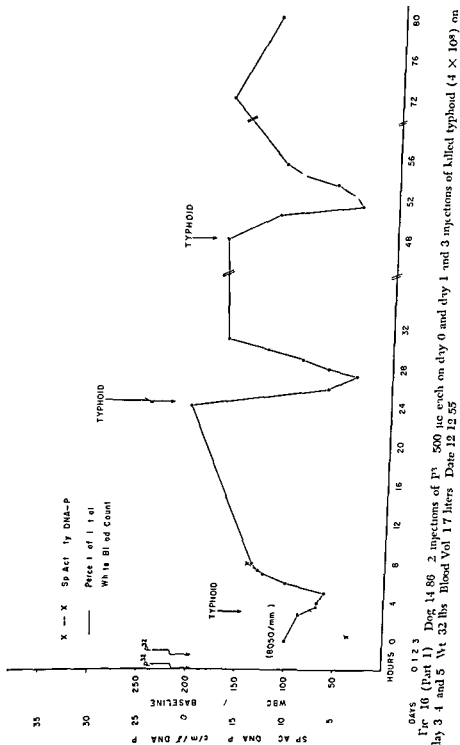
From these data it appears probable that the size of the human marrow leukocyte reserve may be susceptible to study by modification of this type of approach. Such knowledge may have value in the management of patients receiving agents which suppress leukopoiesis and in the study of altered leukopoiesis in disease.

It is of interest to compare the large reserve of mature leukocytes in the marrow with the small reserve of platelets. Removal of all circulating platelets by a similar procedure produces a thrombocytopenia which persists for 4 days before a gradual rise begins. This sustained thrombocytopenia is associated with disappearance of platelets in the marrow and hyperplasia of immature megakaryocytes. These cells require a period of 3 to 4 days for maturation to the point of platelet production. This limited reserve of platelets has considerable clinical significance since massive replacement with platelet poor blood will result in prolonged thrombocytopenia.

The mechanisms involved in this release of white cells from the marrow at varying rates depending on peripheral demand are unknown. Humoral influences have not yet been detected in our experiments. The primary stimulus in leukopheresis seems to be the removal of cells from the circulating blood. The entire pattern of response resembles a redistribution of cells from the central marrow toward the periphery. Some sort of tissue continuity must exist between the leukocytes throughout the body so that removal of cells in the periphery promotes a shift of cells from the marrow reservoir.

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Endocrine Influences on Blood Formation<sup>1</sup>

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It is now conceded that the endocrine glands constitute a link in the chain of physiologic factors that exert a regulative influence on the processes of blood formation and destruction. This relation might have been anticipated since the hormones as is well known significantly affect the rate and sometimes even the quality of a wide variety of biological processes and it would be expected that these actions should be imputed either directly or indirectly to the blood forming organs. It would seem inadvisable in this report to discuss in detail again the evidence supporting a relation between the endocrine system and the blood elements for this topic has been reviewed on several occasions (13 15 16 32 33 34). Most of the recent attention has focused on the effects of manipulation of the pituitary-adrenal axis on the peripheral leukocyte numbers. Thus it is now clear that administration of adrenal cortical steroids particularly those oxygenated at C 11 or activation of the adrenal cortex by ACTH or as a result of stress almost invariably evokes a peripheral leukocytic response characterized by relative and absolute lymphopenia eosinopenia and neutrophilia (11 17 40). The processes responsible for this triad of response have not been resolved fully and it is apparent that the mechanisms differ to some extent depending on whether the treatment is applied acutely or over a sustained period of time. In the relatively short term experiments the suppressive effects of the adrenal principles on the numbers of peripheral eosino-

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phils and lymphocytes may involve at least two pathways (1) a redistribution of these elements to or a sequestration within vascular and extravascular tissue sites (56 57 74) and (2) a destructive action on these cells accomplished in the tissues and perhaps also in the body fluids (18 51 52 60) When administered over protracted periods of time impairment is noted in the production of both eosinophilic and lymphocytic elements (1 32 33) On the other hand the peripheral polymorphonuclear leukocytosis an almost invariable component of the response to corticoid or ACTH treatment is probably the result at least in part of an increased production of these elements within the bone marrow (55 73)

It was the lymphocytic suppressing properties of the adrenal factors that probably first suggested their use in the treatment of animal blood dyscrasias Thus Murphy and Sturm (48) observed the ability of adrenal cortical factors and pituitary extracts containing adrenocorticotrophic activity to inhibit the growth of transplanted lymphatic leukemic cells in rats Similarly adrenalectomy was found to increase greatly the susceptibility of rats to this type of transplantable tumor (66) Along the same lines favorable results were reported with cortisone in inhibiting the growth of malignant lymphoid tumors in mice (39)

Reports soon appeared attesting to the ability of ACTH and cortical steroids to induce remissions in leukemic states in human beings (24 53) It is now recognized that ACTH and the oxysteroids are useful members in the armamentarium available for the palliative treatment of such diseases as chronic lymphatic leukemias lymphosarcomas and acute myeloid leukemias The mechanism of action of the pituitary and adrenal factors in these situations is not as yet known fully In the lymphatic leukemias it seems probable that the ameliorative effects must stem to some extent from the destructive (catabolic) effects of the steroids on the lymphoid growths as well as from the inhibition of the anabolic reactions responsible for the synthesis of both cytoplasmic and nuclear components important in the fabrication of lymphoid cell structure Correction of a maturation defect in the granulocytic elements probably mediated indirectly may provide the basis for whatever beneficial effects accrue with the cortical factors in the acute myelogenous leukemias It has been suggested that the steroids may operate by mobilizing factors such as metabolites or enzymatic components which are lacking in the leukemic state (29 54)

A discussion of the mechanisms of hormone action in cellular proliferative processes should include the ability of endocrine factors to alter certain fundamental aspects of metabolism Thus adrenalectomy in the

rit results in a significant increase in the glycolytic activity of the bone marrow associated with an increase in the myeloid erythroid ratios and in the relative immaturity of the granulocytic forms (32-33). Treatment with adrenal cortical extract lowers the rate of glycolysis and restores the morphological features of the marrow to normal. Since chemical changes must of necessity precede the morphological ones in cellular differentiation processes it is possible that the ameliorative effects of the steroids in leukemia may derive from their capacity to modify abnormal metabolic activity (e.g. glycolytic/respiratory ratios) in the blood-forming cells. The adrenal may accomplish this by regulating the blood flow and therefore the delivery of oxygen and nutrients to the cells. Attention should be given to the possibility that adrenalectomy by establishing tissue ischemia sparks a glycolytic mechanism within the blood-forming organs that is conducive to excessive leukocytic and diminished erythrocytic proliferation.

Basic to the understanding of the influence of hormones in leukemia would be a knowledge of the reasons why greater success is obtained in children afflicted with the acute myeloid leukemias and why refractoriness to these agents develops in most cases despite their continued administration. A study of the intermediary metabolism undergone by the steroids in the refractory patients might shed light on the nature of the resistance. The liver and the adrenal undoubtedly participate in this phenomenon for it is well recognized that these organs operate under both normal and pathological conditions in converting active steroids into others with little or no physiological activity. Worth the effort and time of the chemist would be the development of specific active congeners of the adrenal steroids that might help to defeat the adaptive enzymatic mechanisms which emerge during the continued use of such agents (12).

In a recent symposium on leukemia research there was unanimity of opinion among the groups of international participants that a fuller comprehension is required of the basic mechanisms underlying the processes of blood cell growth, differentiation and release from the blood-forming organs before deeper and more significant inroads can be made into the solution of the problem of leukemia. It is our opinion in this regard that greater energies should be expended in exploring further the effects of naturally occurring substances on hemopoietic processes for it is possible that a change in the balance of these factors might provide the soil for the conversion of a normal cellular type into one with leukemic potentialities.

The use of endocrine stimuli in hematologic studies has been made

by us not only as a means of investigating hormonal influences on blood formation a problem important in its own right but also as an effective tool in uncovering basic mechanisms that might be concerned in the production distribution and ultimate disposal of the blood cells. It has become evident to us as well as to others that in studies of blood formation a knowledge of the numbers of circulating blood elements although informative does not necessarily afford an accurate indication of the events transpiring within the blood forming organs. Thus the agent being tested could conceivably induce changes in plasma volume or cause a shifting of cells into and out of the circulation phenomena which would render false impressions of the actual hemopoietic events. Moreover studies by Yoffey (72) and by Osgood (49) demonstrate that the circulating white cells represent only a small fraction of the total leukocytic population of the body.

The present research is concerned primarily with a quantitative approach to the effects of hormones given alone and in combination with a potent antimetabolite on the cellular elements of bone marrow. A modification of a method devised for assessing the numbers of marrow cells in the rat (26-33) has been employed. At the termination of the experiments the animals were subjected to light ether anesthesia exsanguinated by cardiac puncture and decapitated. The femurs or tibias were dissected quickly trimmed completely of all surrounding tissue and split lengthwise. A sample representing the greater part of the available marrow was drawn into a pipet calibrated to contain exactly 10 or 20 mm<sup>3</sup>. The marrow was expelled into a test tube containing 2 ml of homologous serum and a suspension was formed by drawing the marrow up and down in a rubber nipped glass pipet. Samples were then taken for hemacytometer counts and for smears. One sample was diluted with Randolph's phloxine methylene blue mixture to determine the total numbers of nucleated cells and of eosinophils. By means of myelogram percentages obtained from stained smears the numbers of the other cell types were computed. Nucleated erythroid cells were identified from marrow smears treated by Ralph's benzidine technique and counterstained with Harris hematoxylin. Wright stained smears were also examined. In the present studies the results of the marrow analyses are thus expressed in terms of concentration (i.e. cells per cubic millimeter of marrow).

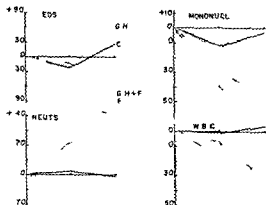
#### Effects of 17 Hydroxycorticosterone (Cortisol) in Adrenalectomized Rats

In previous papers (26-33) we have described the effects of adrenalectomy and steroidal factors on hemopoiesis. Thus at 5 days after

adrenalectomy in the rat there occurred approximately a 50% increase in the total numbers of eosinophils and lymphocytes and a 50% reduction in the numbers of nucleated red cells in the femoral marrow. Daily injections of 2 to 6 mg of cortisol for 7 days induced a marked lowering in the numbers of eosinophils and lymphocytes within the marrow. Neutrophilic cellular numbers were depressed with the 4 and 6 mg doses of this steroid. Accompanying these effects on leukocytic numbers were oppositely induced changes in the nucleated erythroid cell population. Daily amounts of cortisol as small as 0.5 mg which are anabolic in the adrenalectomized rat resulted in more than a doubling and quantities of 2 to 6 mg (catabolic doses) evoked approximately a 300% increase in the total numbers of nucleated erythrocytes. The marrow changes induced by cortisol were accompanied by peripheral eosinopenia, lymphopenia and neutrophilia. Reticulocytosis and rises in both the hematocrit and hemoglobin values were also in evidence.

#### Effects of Cortisol and Growth Hormone in Hypophysectomized Rats

Somewhat similar actions were induced by cortisol in hypophysectomized rats. Here 1 mg amounts of the steroid administered daily for 2 weeks resulted in peripheral eosinopenia, lymphopenia and neutrophilia (Fig. 1). A diminution in total white cell count was also noted.



PER CENT CHANGES IN WBC PARAMETERS

FIG. 1. Per cent changes at 1 and 2 weeks in peripheral eosinophils (EOS), lymphocytes and monocytes (MONONUCL), neutrophils (NEUTS) and total white cell counts (WBC) in hypophysectomized rats receiving growth hormone (GH; 7 animals), cortisol (F; 9 animals), growth hormone and cortisol (GH + F; 7 animals), and controls (C; 10 animals) which received the vehicle for the hormones. Data from Fruhman and Gordon (27).

which was attributable to the decrease in the numbers of lymphocytes the predominant circulating leukocyte in the rat. Growth hormone (Raben Westermeyer preparation) given in daily doses of 0.5 mg for the same 2 week period caused a tendency toward peripheral eosinophilia and neutropenia; a marked reticulocytosis was also present. Growth hormone administered together with cortisol tended to inhibit to some extent the effects exerted by cortisol alone on the peripheral leukocytic picture. Repeated injections of cortisol induced a 70% reduction in eosinophils and a 50% decrease in the numbers of lymphocytes within the bone marrow of hypophysectomized rats (Figs 2 and 3). These changes probably were responsible for the peripheral

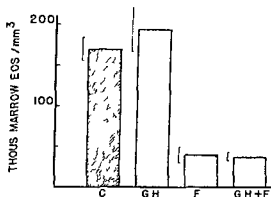


FIG 2 Mean eosinophil values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the femoral marrow of the four groups of rats shown in Fig 1. Two dots (••) indicate values significantly different from controls ( $P < 0.01$ ). Vertical lines to the left of the bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error of the mean. Data taken from Fruhmann and Gordon (27).

eosinopenia and lymphopenia noted in these animals. Extramedullary sources may account for the maintained peripheral neutrophilia in the face of a reduction in the numbers of the elements in the marrow of rats treated chronically with cortisol. Growth hormone when administered along with cortisol was without influence on the course of the marrow lymphopenia and eosinopenia caused by the steroid alone. The growth hormone was strongly erythropoietic in the hypophysectomized rat causing approximately a 70% increase in the concentrations of nucleated red cells within the bone marrow (Fig 4). In the dosages employed cortisol exerted no significant effects on the concentrations of nucleated red cells but since the total cellularity suf

ferred a reduction in the animals treated with this steroid the percentages of the nucleated red cells were necessarily increased (Fig 5)

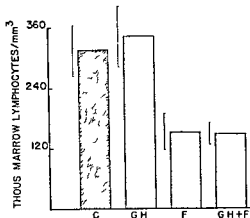


FIG 3 Mean lymphocyte values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the femoral marrows of the four groups shown in Fig. 1 Symbols are the same as for Fig. 2

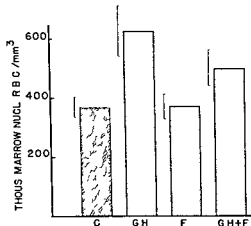


FIG 4 Mean nucleated RBC values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the femoral marrows of the four groups of rats shown in Fig. 1 Symbols are the same as for Fig. 2

#### Effects of a 2,4-Diaminopyrimidine in Intact Rats

More recently our attention has been directed to a quantitative study of the effects of antimetabolites on the blood forming processes in the rat. Our initial study centered on the peripheral and marrow effects of

a diaminopyrimidine namely 2,4-diamino-5-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-6-ethylpyrimidine (50-276 Wellcome Research Laboratories). This is a member of a group of pyrimidines shown originally by Hitchings and his associates (41) to be competitive antagonists of folic acid for the growth of *Lactobacillus casei*. The hematological effects of some of these compounds have been examined recently in the dog and rat (39).

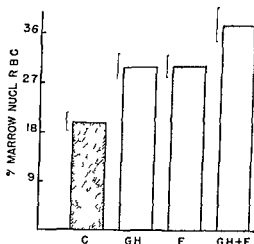


FIG. 5. Mean percentages of nucleated RBC within the femoral marrow of the four groups of rats shown in Fig. 1. Symbols are the same as for Fig. 2.

In our experiments intraperitoneal injections of 2 mg of 50-276 daily for 5 days into adult male rats weighing approximately 350 g resulted in a decrease in the numbers of circulating reticulocytes, lymphocytes, eosinophils, and neutrophils. This antimetabolite also decreased significantly the total nucleated cell population of the marrow, a reflection largely of the reductions in numbers of neutrophils and lymphoid elements within this organ. Normal and sham-operated rats injected daily with 50-276 (6 mg/kg initial body weight) for more than 30 days gained weight and appeared healthy. Adrenalectomized animals treated in the same manner died within a week.

#### Effects of 50-276 and Cobalt in Intact Rats

The use of antimetabolites in the treatment of leukemic states is often handicapped by their tendency to depress erythropoiesis. It seemed conceivable to us that if a potent erythropoietic agent were to be given simultaneously with the antimetabolite, the erythropoietic depressing effects of the latter could be circumvented while still achieving the de-

sired suppressive action on the leukocytes. To test this possibility in organic cobalt was employed. This metal has been shown by many workers to exert marked erythropoietic effects in intact as well as in endocrine deficient animals (4 10 35 43 67).

Four groups of adult male rats (8 in each group) in the 350-g body weight range were established. The first received 2 mg of 50-276 intraperitoneally, the second was injected subcutaneously with 2 mg of cobalt chloride, the third with the combination of 50-276 and cobalt, and the fourth with 1% saline, the vehicle for these agents. The substances were administered on five occasions over a 6-day period, and all animals were killed on the seventh day. The cobalt-treated rats displayed a moderate stimulation of erythropoiesis as seen from the reticulocytosis and increased hematocrit percentages, hemoglobin values, and red cell counts. The numbers of nucleated red cells within the marrows were also significantly elevated by this substance. On the other hand, no significant changes were noted in the numbers of peripheral or bone marrow leukocytes.

To our surprise, instead of cobalt's overcoming the effects of the antimetabolite on the erythroid elements, a synergistic depressive action was manifested not only on these but also on other of the cellular types of the marrow. Figure 6 depicts the marked decrease in the numbers of nucleated red cells within the marrow evoked by the combination, an effect not in evidence with the antimetabolite alone. The action on splenic erythropoiesis was also striking. Here the antimetabolite given singly was without effect on the nucleated red cell percentages within the spleen, whereas cobalt induced a great increase in their numbers. On the other hand, the combination produced a marked lowering in the percentages of these elements. In addition, neutrophilic and eosinophilic elements virtually disappeared from both the circulation and bone marrow (Figs 7 and 8).

Table III indicates that cobalt induced a slight drop in body weight. In this series, body weights were not influenced significantly by 50-276 given alone. The combination of cobalt and the antimetabolite resulted in a marked decrease in body weight, considerably greater than seen with 50-276 administered singly. These results have been reported in preliminary form (28).

This study prompted us to investigate the question as to whether the actions of the antimetabolite could be modified by hormonal factors known to exert hemopoietic effects in endocrine deficient animals. These included 11 dehydro-17 hydroxycorticosterone (cortisone), growth hormone, testosterone, and a plasma filtrate obtained from anemic rabbits.



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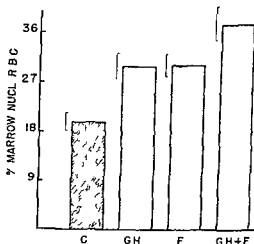


FIG 5 Mean percentages of nucleated RBC within the femoral marrow of the four groups of rats shown in Fig 1. Symbols are the same as for Fig 2.

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of both neutrophilic and mononuclear elements. Administration of 5 mg doses of cortisone also resulted in a moderate decrease in leukocyte count due almost completely to the characteristic lowering of lymphocyte numbers. eosinophil levels were also depressed. Neutrophils displayed the usual elevation in numbers after cortisone treatment. the combination of 50 276 and cortisone resulted in depressive effects on the total leuko

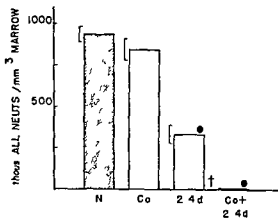


FIG 7 Mean total neutrophilic cell values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the tibial marrows of the four groups of rats shown in Fig 6. Symbols are the same as in Fig 6.

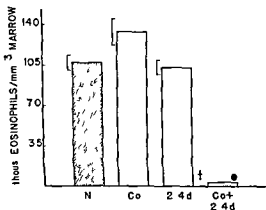


FIG 8 Mean eosinophil values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the tibial marrows of the four groups of rats shown in Fig 6. Symbols are the same as in Fig 6.

In these experiments rats weighing approximately 200 g were employed and a dose of 50 276 was sought which would evoke only moderate changes in bone marrow cellularity. This was found to be 1.2 mg per 200 g rat per day. After treatment signs of the pernicious anemia type of bone marrow with "megaloblasts" and giant myelocytes were in evidence. The numbers of mitotic figures also were increased significantly in both the erythroid and myeloid series probably a manifestation of

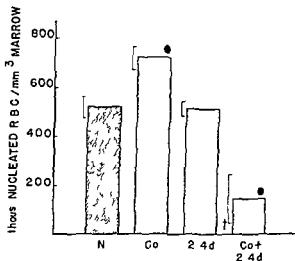


FIG. 6. Mean nucleated RBC values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the tibial marrow of four groups of rats injected five times over a 6 day period with (1) cobalt (Co) (2) 50-276 (2 4d) (3) cobalt + 50-276 (Co + 2-4d) and (4) the vehicle for these agents (N). One ellipse (●) indicates values significantly different from controls ( $P < 0.01$ ). One cross (†) indicates that the value for the combination is significantly different from that for the antineoplastic alone ( $P < 0.01$ ). Vertical lines to the left of the bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error of the mean.

arrested development. The design of the experiment was similar to that described above for the cobalt antineoplastic series. Subcutaneous injections of the hormonal factor were given separately and in combination with the antineoplastic which was administered intraperitoneally to groups of rats. Controls were injected with the vehicles for these agents. Injections were given five times over a 6 day period and all rats were killed on the seventh day.

#### Effects of 50 276 and Cortisone in Intact Rats

##### PERIPHERAL LEUKOCYTE COUNTS

It will be noted from Table I that 50 276 induced approximately a 25% decrease in the leukocyte count due to a diminution in the numbers

of both neutrophilic and mononuclear elements. Administration of 5 mg doses of cortisone also resulted in a moderate decrease in leukocyte count due almost completely to the characteristic lowering of lymphocyte numbers. eosinophil levels were also depressed. Neutrophils displayed the usual elevation in numbers after cortisone treatment. the combination of 50 276 and cortisone resulted in depressive effects on the total leuko

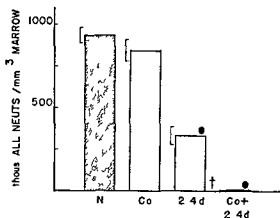


FIG 7 Mean total neutrophilic cell values (thousands/mm<sup>3</sup>) within the tibial marrows of the four groups of rats shown in Fig 6. Symbols are the same as in Fig 6.

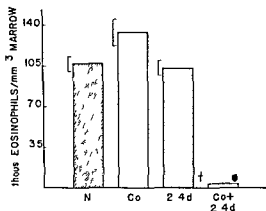


FIG 8 Mean eosinophil values (thousands /mm<sup>3</sup>) within the tibial marrows of the four groups of rats shown in Fig 6. Symbols are the same as in Fig 6.

TABLE I  
EFFECTS OF 50-276 CORTISONE (E) AND GROWTH HORMONE (GH) ON THE PERIPHERAL WHITE CELL VALUES IN INTACT RATS

Treatment†	Total WBC thousands/mm <sup>3</sup>	Mononuclears thous inds/mm <sup>3</sup>	Neutrophils thous inds/mm <sup>3</sup>	Eosinophils numbers/mm <sup>3</sup>
Controls (6)	205 ± 10	167 ± 10	32 ± 0.5	319 ± 50
50-276 (6)	154 ± 19‡	135 ± 0.5‡	19 ± 17	324 ± 132
5 mg E (6)	166 ± 19	71 ± 0.8§	95 ± 1.0§	40 ± 36§
50-276 + 5 mg E (6)	70 ± 1.5§	19 ± 1.1§	51 ± 0.9	22 ± 1§
Controls (6)	159 ± 29	125 ± 2.6	32 ± 0.8	210 ± 71
50-276 (6)	92 ± 0.8	85 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.1§	90 ± 52
GH (6)	154 ± 28	119 ± 1.6	26 ± 0.7	329 ± 82
50-276 + GH (6)	112 ± 2.0	97 ± 2.2	0.9 ± 0.4‡	106 ± 82

The experiments with cortisone and with growth hormone were run at different times and therefore are indicated separately with their own controls

† Numbers of animals are indicated in parentheses under Treatment All figures represent means ± standard errors

‡ Indicates  $P < 0.05$  for the values compared to the controls

§ Indicates  $P < 0.01$  for the values compared to the controls

|| Indicates  $P < 0.01$  for the values of the combinations compared to 50-276 alone

cyte values lymphocytes and eosinophils greater in magnitude than those seen with either material administered alone. Neutrophil numbers however were intermediate between those noted with the two agents given separately.

#### BONE MARROW

In determining the myelograms for the animals receiving the anti-metabolite the various cellular series examined included abnormal as well as normal elements. Thus the total neutrophil category comprised all neutrophilic elements including giant myelocytes and metamyelocytes. The "mature neutrophil" group consisted only of cells that were polymorphonuclear and in which neutrophilic granulation was evident and the cytoplasmic basophilia was no longer present. The erythroid category included both megakaryoblastic and normoblastic elements. Unclassified cells composed of "blasts" plasmacytes macrophages mast cells megakaryocytes unidentified elements and destroyed forms were not listed separately but were included in the total nucleated cell counts.

Table II indicates the effects of the various agents studied on the concentrations of the cellular elements of the marrow. It will be observed that 50/276 produced a decrease in the cellularity of the marrow mainly due to a drop in neutrophilic and lymphocytic elements. Nucleated red cell and eosinophilic numbers were not affected significantly by this dose of antimetabolite. Cortisone exerted little effect in the intact rat save to produce a rise in the concentrations of mature neutrophilic forms and a lowering in the eosinophil numbers in the 5 mg injected group. The marrows of the rats receiving the combination of the antimetabolite and the 5 mg dose of cortisone revealed a greater lowering in the total cellularity and in eosinophil numbers than that noted with 50/276 given alone. A synergistic depressive action was observed with the combination on the neutrophilic cell category an effect especially apparent on the mature neutrophilic forms.

In the rats displaying the potentiated depressive effects the marrows were very reddened grossly and fluid in consistency. The hypocellular structure was infiltrated by numerous mature erythrocytes. Many late normoblasts were seen. Increased numbers of mitotic figures possibly in arrest and fragmented nuclei also were apparent. Giant myelocytes were less conspicuous. The general impression gained was that the major morphological defect resided in the nucleus rather than in the cytoplasm. As judged by staining both with Wright's stain and with the Ralph benzidine hematoxylin technique the cytoplasm was often more

TABLE II  
EFFECTS OF 50-276 AND VARIOUS AGENTS ON THE CELLULAR CONCENTRATIONS WITHIN THE MARROWS OF INTACT RATS

Treatment†	Total		Nucleated		Total		Mature		Eosinophils thousands/mm <sup>3</sup>
	nucleated cells millions/mm <sup>3</sup>	red blood cells millions/mm <sup>3</sup>	neutrophils millions/mm <sup>3</sup>	neutrophils millions/mm <sup>3</sup>	neutrophils millions/mm <sup>3</sup>	neutrophils millions/mm <sup>3</sup>	lymphocytes millions/mm <sup>3</sup>		
Controls (18)	272 ± 007	056 ± 006	060 ± 008	025 ± 003	039 ± 005	121 ± 11			
50-276 (9)	204 ± 010†	053 ± 012	058 ± 006§	016 ± 002§	018 ± 003†	100 ± 9			
2.5 mg E (6)	288 ± 018	055 ± 010	095 ± 013	038 ± 006	044 ± 008	131 ± 33			
50-276 + 2.5 mg E (6)	202 ± 013†	032 ± 011	064 ± 006	023 ± 004	016 ± 002†	73 ± 12†			
5 mg E (6)	270 ± 007	068 ± 012	093 ± 006	050 ± 007†	028 ± 007	74 ± 19§			
50-276 + 5 mg E (6)	128 ± 027†	035 ± 008§	024 ± 004†	006 ± 0002†	031 ± 007	27 ± 7†			
2 mg testes terone (6)	227 ± 008†	052 ± 006	070 ± 009	022 ± 006	032 ± 007	48 ± 5†			
50-276 + 2 mg testosterone (6)	215 ± 017§	056 ± 017	049 ± 010§	013 ± 006	029 ± 005	48 ± 3†			
HP (6)	310 ± 008†	066 ± 003	093 ± 014	027 ± 007	041 ± 006	127 ± 17			
50-276 + HP (6)	244 ± 017	075 ± 008	060 ± 004§	007 ± 0009†	025 ± 008	105 ± 16			
2 mg phenyl hydrazine (6)	298 ± 017	137 ± 019†	059 ± 003§	020 ± 006	022 ± 005§	98 ± 17			
50-276 + 2 mg phenyl hydrazine (6)	192 ± 015†	096 ± 013† §	027 ± 008†	005 ± 002†	011 ± 004†	64 ± 7†			
50-276 (9)	199 ± 014†	056 ± 011	056 ± 007§	011 ± 003†	019 ± 004†	92 ± 9			
1 mg GH (9)	273 ± 008	068 ± 011	087 ± 004	031 ± 006	032 ± 005	149 ± 36			
50-276 + 1 mg GH (9)	153 ± 014† §	040 ± 007	030 ± 006† §	004 ± 001† §	013 ± 004†	73 ± 14§			

The data for GH are indicated separately because these experiments were run at a different time. Another group of 50-276 injected rats run simultaneously with the GH series is included.

† Numbers of animals are indicated in parentheses under Treatment. All figures represent means ± standard errors. E = cortisone.

GH = growth hormone. HP = plasma filtrate.

§ Indicates  $P < 0.01$  for the values compared to the controls.

|| Indicates  $P < 0.05$  for the values compared to the controls.

||| Indicates  $P < 0.01$  for the values of the control on comparison with 50-276 alone.

§ In brackets  $P < 0.05$  for the values of the combination compared to 50-276 alone.

"mature (hemoglobiniferous) than might have been expected from the nuclear appearance

#### BODY AND SPLEEN WEIGHTS

As seen from Table III both 50-276 and the 2.5 mg doses of cortisone permitted gains in body weight to occur but at a somewhat inhibited rate. The 5 mg levels of cortisone resulted in a slight loss in body weight. A loss in body weight was also sustained by the rats receiving the combination of 50-276 and the 2.5 mg doses of cortisone. An even greater reduction of weight was evident in the rats injected with the combination of 50-276 and the higher doses of cortisone.

A tendency toward a decrease in splenic weights was seen with the antimetabolite and with the 5 mg levels of cortisone. The combination of the antimetabolite and the 5-mg levels of cortisone produced greater decreases in splenic weights than those noted with either agent administered singly.

A moderate hemorrhage amounting to 1.5% of body weight was applied to test the erythropoietic potential of rats that had been injected with the antimetabolite and the 5-mg levels of cortisone for 7 days. Hematocrit percentages and body weights were followed at 1, 4, and 7 days after the bleeding. All 24 rats survived the entire experimental period. All groups experienced a small drop in hematocrit at the first day after the bleeding. This attained its lowest level at 4 days in the controls and in the groups injected with 50-276. The rats injected with cortisone or the combination tended to recover more quickly. At 7 days the hematocrit values of the four groups were not significantly different. At 4 days the control animals and those which had received the 5-mg doses of cortisone were manifesting weight gains. Little change in weight was noted in the rats receiving the combination, whereas those treated with 50-276 alone experienced a sharp reduction in weight. By the seventh day, however, gains in weight were noted in all four groups.

#### Effects of 50-276 and Growth Hormone in Intact Rats

##### PERIPHERAL LEUKOCYTE COUNTS

The only significant effect produced by daily 1 mg doses of beef growth hormone (GH) (Armour No. M108) was a rise in the circulating eosinophil numbers (Table I). The total leukocyte count and mononuclear and neutrophil numbers were not affected. No evidence was observed for a synergistic action of GH and the antimetabolite on the numbers of any of the leukocytic types examined.



TABLE III  
EFFECTS OF 50-276 AND VARIOUS AGENTS ON BODY WEIGHT IN THE INTACT RAT

Treatment†	Mean weights before treatment g	Mean weights after treatment g	Differences ± standard errors
Controls (8)	359	359	0 ± 4
50-276 (8)	340	330	- 10 ± 6
2 mg cobalt (8)	337	325	- 12 ± 4‡
50-276 + 2 mg cobalt (8)	332	276	- 56 ± 6§
Controls (21)	202	230	+ 28 ± 3
50-276 (12)	205	217	+ 12 ± 3§
25 mg E (6)	220	231	+ 11 ± 4§
50-276 + 25 mg E (6)	209	201	- 8 ± 2§
50 mg E (6)	202	196	- 6 ± 4§
50-276 + 50 mg E (6)	202	183	- 19 ± 3§ §
2 mg testos- terone (6)	208	231	+ 23 ± 2
50-276 + 2 mg testos- terone (6)	208	222	+ 14 ± 2§
1 mg GH (9)	193	229	+ 36 ± 2‡
50-276 + 1 mg GH (9)	200	210	+ 10 ± 4§
HP (6)	197	238	+ 41 ± 4‡
50-276 + HP (6)	199	227	+ 28 ± 5‡
2 mg phenyl hydrazine (6)	201	215	+ 14 ± 2§
50-276 + 2 mg phenyl hydrazine (6)	191	181	- 10 ± 3§

The experiments with cobalt were conducted on heavier animals and therefore are indicated separately with their own controls

† Numbers of animals are indicated in parentheses under Treatment E = cortisone GH = growth hormone HP = plasma filtrate

‡ Indicates  $P < 0.05$  for the values compared to the controls

§ Indicates  $P < 0.01$  for the values compared to the controls

§ Indicates  $P < 0.05$  for the values of the combinations compared to 50-276 alone

|| Indicates  $P < 0.01$  for the values of the combinations compared to 50-276 alone

### BONE MARROW

Table II reveals that GH did not influence significantly the numbers of any of the cellular types of the marrow in the intact rat. Nevertheless this factor potentiated the depressive action of 50 276 on the numbers of total nucleated cells. Again it was the drop in the numbers of neutrophilic cells that contributed mostly to this effect.

### BODY, SPLENIC, AND THYMIC WEIGHTS

Daily administration of 1 mg of GH evoked body weight gains of  $30 \pm 4$  g over a period of 7 days in test hypophysectomized rats averaging 178 g in weight. In the intact rats utilized in this study significant increases in body weights over those of the vehicle treated controls were observed with GH (Table III). This hormone also induced increases in thymic ( $P < 0.05$ ) but not in splenic weights. No augmented depressive effects were noted with the combination of GH and 50 276 on the body, splenic or thymic weights.

### Effects of 50 276 and Testosterone in Intact Rats

Eosinopenia was the only action evident in the marrows of rats that received daily injections of 2 mg of testosterone propionate (Table II). When given with 50 276 it was conspicuously without effect in altering the marrow changes induced by the antimetabolite alone. In addition it failed to modify the body (Table III) and splenic weights when administered alone or together with the antimetabolite.

### Effects of 50-276 and a Plasma Filtrate Obtained from Anemic Rabbits in Intact Rats

Previous reports (3, 6, 36, 37) have indicated considerable erythropoietic activity in boiled filtrates of acidified plasma secured from rabbits rendered severely anemic by phenylhydrazine. Thus highly significant increases in peripheral red cell numbers and in hemoglobin, hematocrit and reticulocyte values accompanied by both morphologic and enzymatic evidence of increased erythropoietic activity of the bone marrow are observed after repeated injections of this material for approximately 2 weeks into intact or hypophysectomized rats.

We considered it of interest to determine the effects of this filtrate (HP) and the antimetabolite on the blood picture. Daily injections of 1 ml of HP corresponding to 2.66 ml of original plasma were made into intact rats either alone or in combination with the 1.2 mg doses of 50 276. Materials were given as in previous groups for 5 days. Table II indicates that HP induced a significant increase in the total nucleated cells of the marrow. This rise was probably the result of the com-

bined small increases in the numbers of cellular types especially the nucleated red cell and neutrophilic forms. Considerably greater erythropoietic activity is evoked by HP when administered over a longer period than 5 days (6, 36, 37).

The total marrow cellularity in the rats administered the combination was intermediate between that observed for either agent given alone. A potentiated depressive effect with the combination of 50/276 and HP on the marrow cells was noted in the mature neutrophilic series. This was not apparent for the nucleated red cells, lymphocytes or eosinophils.

Body weight gains were increased significantly by the administration of HP (Table III). When given with 50/276 HP tended to restore the body weight gains to the levels characteristic of the vehicle injected controls. No significant influence of HP injected alone or with the anti-metabolite was noted on the splenic weights.

#### Effects of 50/276 and Phenylhydrazine in Intact Rats

In this series of experiments intact rats were administered 2 mg of phenylhydrazine alone and in combination with 50/276 daily for 5 days in the same manner as conducted in all the previous experiments. Phenylhydrazine given singly resulted in approximately a 15% drop in peripheral hematocrit values but the anti-metabolite by itself exerted no effects on this parameter. The combination however evoked approximately a 50% fall in hematocrit. Reticulocyte values were elevated to 46% by phenylhydrazine; an intermediate value of 29% was evident with the combination.

Within the marrow phenylhydrazine induced highly significant increases in the concentrations of nucleated red cells but caused a fall in the numbers of total neutrophils (Table II). No significant effects were exerted on the eosinophil numbers. Joint administration of the anti-metabolite with phenylhydrazine resulted in a greater depression in the numbers of neutrophils and eosinophils than that seen with either agent given alone. The combination of the two factors did not result in a synergistic depression of the nucleated erythroid cells. In fact the concentrations of these elements were significantly higher than those noted in either the controls or in the rats receiving 50/276.

The rats treated with phenylhydrazine failed to gain weight at the same rate as in the controls (Table III). The combination of phenylhydrazine and 50/276 caused a loss of body weight not apparent with either agent alone.

### Discussion

The results of the present as well as previous studies indicate clearly that endocrine deficiency states and hormonal treatments exert a significant influence on blood forming processes. It would seem that the endocrine deficient rat is a more sensitive test object than the intact rat for assessing the hemopoietic actions of the hormones. Thus the quantities of steroid hormone and the length of time the treatment must be administered to induce eosinopenia, lymphopenia and erythropoietic actions in the marrow are significantly greater in the intact animal than in either adrenalectomized (26) or hypophysectomized (27) rats. Thus comparable treatment with adrenal cortical steroids evokes considerably greater increases in the numbers of nucleated red cells in the marrows of adrenalectomized as compared to intact rats. A similar situation prevails for the effects of growth hormone and testosterone as judged by their ability to speed erythropoiesis in the hypophysectomized animal (32-34). This greater response of the deficient animal to endocrine replacement may reside in an increased sensitivity of its tissues to the prevailing levels of the hormone or to a decreased rate of destruction of the hormone caused by the generally lowered metabolic state of the animal.

Of considerable interest was the capacity of certain hormonal and other agents to potentiate the actions of 2,4-diaminopyrimidine (50-276), an antagonist of folic acid metabolism, on some of the cellular values of the blood and bone marrow. When judged on the basis of numbers the cellular series within the marrow most affected by the antimetabolite was the neutrophilic, with increasing resistance being noted for the eosinophilic and lymphocytic elements. The synergistic depressive effects with the combinations were also revealed in approximately the same order indicating that the provocative agent may operate by increasing the effectiveness of the antimetabolite on cellular proliferation and maturation. It would appear that the erythroid cells were more resistant to the actions of the antimetabolite than the granulocytes. In this regard it has been demonstrated that leukocytic divisions are associated with reduplication of chromosomes and continued deoxyribose nucleic acid (DNA) synthesis. As Dustin (19) has remarked this is not so evident for the divisions of the erythrocyte, especially in the later stages where there appears to be a diminution in the quantity of DNA in the erythroblastic nuclei. Such mitoses without DNA synthesis would be expected to be more resistant to antagonists of folic acid metabolism.

Of the agents used cobalt was the most effective in augmenting the

actions of the antimetabolite. The combination led to an almost complete disappearance of the neutrophilic elements especially mature forms as well as eosinophils from the bone marrow. Erythroid cell concentrations which were increased by cobalt alone and not affected by the antimetabolite in the dosage employed were greatly depressed by the combination. A similar enhanced depressive action on the numbers of marrow neutrophils eosinophils and nucleated erythroid forms was produced by the combination of 50 276 and cortisone. No synergistic action with cortisone was noted on the neutrophils of the peripheral circulation however indicating that the neutrophilia attending cortisone treatment is probably not totally a result of a stimulatory action on myeloid cell proliferation within the marrow but is also due to an ability of adrenal steroids to mobilize this cellular type from extramedullary sites. At the same time such results and others along the same lines in the present study point up an already emphasized fact (32 33 49) that the peripheral cell numbers do not necessarily reflect quantitatively or even qualitatively the alterations occurring within the blood forming organs. The data indicate that pretreatment with cortisone and the antimetabolite did not influence the recovery of rats from a single bleeding. Thus at 7 days after the hemorrhage normal hematocrit values were reestablished and gains in body weight were occurring. Future experiments will be conducted to determine the effects of maintained treatment with these agents on the response to repeated bleedings. Another facet of this work will examine the leukocytic regenerative capacities in such animals.

The results with growth hormone were particularly interesting in that they revealed this agent as able to potentiate the effects of the antimetabolite in lowering neutrophilic cell numbers within the marrow whereas GH by itself did not produce significant effects on this cellular line. Similarly the depressive action exerted on the eosinophil numbers by the combination of GH and the antimetabolite was not evident when each of these factors was administered independently.

A somewhat different pattern was unfolded with the hemolytic substance phenylhydrazine and with the plasma filtrate obtained from rabbits made anemic by this agent. Each material given in combination with the antimetabolite produced greater depressive effects on the mature marrow neutrophils than was seen with either agent alone. No such action was apparent however on the nucleated red cell population with the combination of phenylhydrazine and 50 276 or HP and this antimetabolite. In fact the concentrations of nucleated red cells obtained with the combination were greater than those seen with the anti-

metabolite alone a point indicating different levels of action of the various provocative agents used on the cellular types of the marrow. A protective action of HP on irradiated rats has been reported recently (65).

The lymphocytic population of the marrow consistently did not appear to participate in the synergistic inhibitory actions. This suggests that all marrow lymphocytes may not be formed in this organ or that they represent extramedullary elements that have infiltrated the marrow as a result of the structural damage inflicted by the antimetabolite.

Instances of enhanced depressive actions exerted by combinations of antimetabolites and hormones on cellular proliferative processes and general viability have appeared in the literature. Thus Farber and his associates (23) have concluded that more satisfactory results in the treatment of leukemia in children were obtained when cortisone or ACTH was used in combination with antimetabolites. Shapiro (61) reported the ability of stilbestrol but not testosterone to increase the inhibitory action of 8-azaguanine on transplantable mammary carcinoma in mice. On the other hand, testosterone was found to increase the toxicity of aminopterin in mice, whereas estrogen was ineffective in this regard (68). Along the same lines Goldin *et al.* (31) found aminopterin to be more lethal in male than in female mice. The present experiments, however, indicate that when testosterone was combined with 50-276 enhanced inhibition was not apparent on the body weights or on any of the parameters studied within the bone marrow. Our results with testosterone are not necessarily at variance with those of others. It seems likely that the dosage employed and the time over which the agent is administered are vital factors in influencing the response of the animal. In addition, it is possible to envision at least three different patterns of response depending on whether treatment with the agent is given days before simultaneously with or days after exposure to the antimetabolite.

The precise nature of the mechanism by which the various agents employed in this study produce their potentiating effects remains speculative. It is commonly accepted that the inhibitory actions of antimetabolites are based on their ability to compete with the metabolite for specific intracellular receptors. This is largely a dosage phenomenon with the more antimetabolite supplied the larger the quantity of metabolite displaced (5) and the greater the amount of the latter required to overcome the inhibitory effects. In the instance of folic acid, those cells with the greatest requirement for this metabolite would be most influenced by antagonists of folic acid metabolism. This appears to be the case for the cellular elements of the marrow which are avid in their demand for

this metabolite. Thus one mode of action is that the potentiating agent may operate by increasing the incorporation of the antimetabolite into the marrow—an effect which may be due to a change in cellular permeability. If this were so it might be anticipated that the administration of a greater quantity of the antimetabolite would reproduce the effects of the synergistic combination. This appears possible for some of the agents employed such as cortisone and cobalt but would not operate for others such as the growth factor. This hormone evoked enlargement of the thymus caused most likely by lymphocytic hyperplasia (25). If the above theory were applicable universally it would be expected that the combination of GH and the antimetabolite should have resulted in synergistic depressive effects on the thymus which was not the case.

An alternative concept involving enzymatic pathways finds support in the observation by Dinning *et al* (14) that the reduction in marrow cellularity induced by aminopterin in chickens is associated with a loss in choline oxidase from this organ. The suggestion was made by them that the antifolate may operate by displacing folic acid from a position in the choline oxidase system. Metallic cobalt also has been found to inhibit this enzyme complex (44). Since as the present study indicates cobalt markedly potentiates the action of 50 276 on the various blood parameters examined a possible mechanism of the synergism may be in the inhibition of choline oxidase or other enzyme systems.

Another but related mechanism would implicate the provocative agent as augmenting the need for specific nutrients which are required by the cell for proliferation. Thus Stoerk (64) has found that treatment with testosterone or cortisone discouraged more strongly the growth of a transplanted lymphosarcoma in pyridoxine deficient rats than in animals on a complete diet. Similar augmented inhibitory actions were found with cortisone on the growth of a lymphosarcoma in riboflavin deficient mice (20). Moreover the combination of deoxypyridoxine or flavotin (a riboflavin analog) and 8 azaguanine inhibited the growth of a mammary carcinoma in mice to a greater extent than did the antimetabolite alone (62). Of interest also is the finding that cortisone injections into rats resulted in approximately a 100% increase in the excretion of vitamin B<sub>1</sub> tagged with Co<sup>60</sup> after administration of a test dose of this vitamin (7). Similarly it is reported (46) that vitamin B<sub>1</sub> can overcome the catabolic effects of cortisone. Large doses of cortisone also lead to loss of vitamin A from the livers and kidneys of rats (8). Growth hormone another of the agents employed in the present studies is known to be ineffective in increasing body weights in animals deficient in vitamin B<sub>1</sub> (7) vitamin A (21) or pyridoxine (2) and induces a rapid deple-

tion of pantothenic acid in rats maintained on a pantothenic acid deficient diet (45). Thus the hormones may act by increasing the need for vitamins which serve as cofactors for enzymes. It is evident therefore that instead of invoking one locus of action for both the antimetabolite and the potentiating agent the possibility may be justified that they operate at different levels which are reinforcing in their inhibitory effects. In this connection *in vitro* techniques such as those employed by Weisberger *et al* (69) might serve to differentiate between direct and indirect actions of the agents employed.

Other possibilities would mark the potentiating factor as an inhibitor of a system which is concerned with the inactivation or excretion of the antimetabolite or as an evocator of a metabolic change which converts the antimetabolite into a more potent inhibitor. Isotopically labeled antimetabolites would help in the resolution of these questions.

It has been observed in the present experiments that body weight losses often accompanied the depressive effects on the marrow. If this action is to be interpreted as a "toxic" one then it becomes important to determine its basis. Pertinent here would be a knowledge of the sites of production of the "toxins" and their loci of action. On the other hand situations are encountered in which the provocative agent may enhance the depressive influence of the antimetabolite on the bone marrow in animals continuing to display good increases in body weight (e.g. HP).

The primary thought underlying the present experiments was to uncover combinations of antimetabolites and hemopoietic stimulants that might selectively depress specific cell lines of bone marrow with a minimum of undesirable side effects. This has not been accomplished totally as perhaps might have been anticipated from the widespread activities of both the antimetabolite and the various stimulants used. The best hope for achieving a potentiated inhibitory effect on a cell type would appear to depend on the ability of the agent to affect along with the antimetabolite an essential system specific for that particular cell line. There may be agents which can accomplish this. Well exemplified is the case of the tropic principles of the adenohypophysis which act by and large only on their specific target organs. In this connection growth hormone has been reported to stimulate not to influence or even to inhibit growth in different organs within the same animal (47). Of even greater interest are the observations that inhibition and stimulation can occur within different parts of the same organ with a given hormone or hormone combination. Thus Weiss and Rossetti (71) have reported stimulation of growth of ganglion cells in the brain of amphibian larvae bearing transplants of thyroid tissue or thyroxin soaked agar placed



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An alternative concept involving enzymatic pathways finds support in the observation by Dinning *et al* (14) that the reduction in marrow cellularity induced by aminopterin in chickens is associated with a loss in choline oxidase from this organ. The suggestion was made by them that the antifolic may operate by displacing folic acid from a position in the choline oxidase system. Metallic cobalt also has been found to inhibit this enzyme complex (44). Since as the present study indicates cobalt markedly potentiates the action of 50/276 on the various blood parameters examined a possible mechanism of the synergism may lie in the inhibition of choline oxidase or other enzyme systems.

Another but related mechanism would implicate the provocative agent as augmenting the need for specific nutrients which are required by the cell for proliferation. Thus Stoerk (64) has found that treatment with testosterone or cortisone discouraged more strongly the growth of a transplanted lymphosarcoma in pyridoxine deficient rats than in animals on a complete diet. Similar augmented inhibitory actions were found with cortisone on the growth of a lymphosarcoma in riboflavin deficient mice (20). Moreover the combination of deoxypyridoxine or flavotin (a riboflavin analog) and 8-azaguanine inhibited the growth of a mammary carcinoma in mice to a greater extent than did the antimetabolite alone (62). Of interest also is the finding that cortisone injections into rats resulted in approximately a 100% increase in the excretion of vitamin B<sub>1</sub> tagged with Co<sup>60</sup> after administration of a test dose of this vitamin (7). Similarly it is reported (46) that vitamin B<sub>1</sub> can overcome the catabolic effects of cortisone. Large doses of cortisone also lead to loss of vitamin A from the livers and kidneys of rats (8). Growth hormone another of the agents employed in the present studies is known to be ineffective in increasing body weights in animals deficient in vitamin B<sub>1</sub> (7), vitamin A (21) or pyridoxine (2) and induces a rapid deple-

tion of pantothenic acid in rats maintained on a pantothenic acid deficient diet (45). Thus the hormones may act by increasing the need for vitamins which serve as cofactors for enzymes. It is evident therefore that instead of invoking one locus of action for both the antimetabolite and the potentiating agent the possibility may be justified that they operate at different levels which are reinforcing in their inhibitory effects. In this connection *in vitro* techniques such as those employed by Weisberger *et al* (69) might serve to differentiate between direct and indirect actions of the agents employed.

Other possibilities would mark the potentiating factor as an inhibitor of a system which is concerned with the inactivation or excretion of the antimetabolite or as an evocator of a metabolic change which converts the antimetabolite into a more potent inhibitor. Isotopically labeled antimetabolites would help in the resolution of these questions.

It has been observed in the present experiments that body weight losses often accompanied the depressive effects on the marrow. If this action is to be interpreted as a "toxic" one, then it becomes important to determine its basis. Pertinent here would be a knowledge of the sites of production of the "toxins" and their loci of action. On the other hand situations are encountered in which the provocative agent may enhance the depressive influence of the antimetabolite on the bone marrow in animals continuing to display good increases in body weight (e.g. HP).

The primary thought underlying the present experiments was to uncover combinations of antimetabolites and hemopoietic stimulants that might selectively depress specific cell lines of bone marrow with a minimum of undesirable side effects. This has not been accomplished totally as perhaps might have been anticipated from the widespread activities of both the antimetabolite and the various stimulants used. The best hope for achieving a potentiated inhibitory effect on a cell type would appear to depend on the ability of the agent to affect along with the antimetabolite an essential system specific for that particular cell line. There may be agents which can accomplish this. Well exemplified is the case of the tropic principles of the adenohypophysis which act by and large only on their specific target organs. In this connection growth hormone has been reported to stimulate not to influence or even to inhibit growth in different organs within the same animal (47). Of even greater interest are the observations that inhibition and stimulation can occur within different parts of the same organ with a given hormone or hormone combination. Thus Weiss and Rossetti (71) have reported stimulation of growth of ganglion cells in the brain of amphibian larvae bearing transplants of thyroid tissue or thyroxine soaked agar placed

above the 4th ventricle. One pair of cells, however, concerned with larval swimming, showed shrinkage in size. Weiss (70) has attributed this to a different biochemical constitution of these cells which predisposed them to react to thyroid hormone with a growth response of opposite sign from that of the other cells of the group. Similarly, growth hormone in combination with estrogen inhibited cartilage development but acted in a synergistic manner in increasing bone proliferation within the tibia (59). These observations justify a more intensive search for humoral factors that will operate on specific cell lines. Evidence is available for the existence of circulating specific erythropoietic factors (6, 22, 30, 36, 37, 42) and possible leukopoietic principles (9, 63). The testing of these compounds when obtained in pure form along with the anti-metabolites would be most important. It would also be profitable to attempt the synthesis of the analogs of these "hemopoietins" and to examine them for their depressive effects on blood formation.

The concept has also been advanced (50, 58, 70) that in addition to stimulating factors, other basic humoral substances exist which restrain growth within the animal. These appear to be organ specific (58) and there may be factors operative for each of the blood cellular lines (50). It is not inconceivable that such inhibitors are chemical analogs of the stimulatory agents in which case the extent of cellular proliferation would be a function of the relative amounts of the two sets of principles. Such inhibitors, if isolated, would constitute a natural source of hemopoietic depressants.

It is not outside the realm of credulity to consider that endocrine factors as they circulate within the organism play a role in growth processes by controlling the metabolism and availability to the specific cell lines of the naturally occurring inhibitors and accelerators. It is our feeling that reasoning and research patterned along these lines will lead to a deeper understanding of the mechanisms underlying growth and maturation in normal and pathological cells.

### Summary

Some aspects of the relation of the endocrine system to blood formation are presented. By employing a quantitative method for assessing the numbers of the different cellular types within the bone marrow of the rat, it was found that adrenalectomy resulted in increases in the numbers of lymphocytes and eosinophils accompanied by reductions in the numbers of nucleated erythroid cells within this organ. Treatment with 17-hydroxycorticosterone (cortisol) induced a diminution in the numbers of lymphocytes and eosinophils in the marrows of both adrenal

ectomized and hypophysectomized rats. The nucleated red cell population of the marrow in adrenalectomized rats was increased by this steroid. Growth hormone given together with cortisol inhibited partially the peripheral lymphopenia, eosinopenia and neutrophilia induced by cortisol alone. In the dosage used, however, it was without effect in overcoming the marrow changes caused by cortisol.

A 2,4-diaminopyrimidine (50-276 Wellcome) administered in moderate dosage to intact rats produced a significant decrease in the numbers of circulating reticulocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils and lymphocytes. The marrow displayed megaloblast-like cells and giant myelocytes as well as an increased number of mitotic figures, probably representing cells in division arrest. Neutrophilic and lymphocytic cellular numbers in the marrow were lowered by this substance. The influence of various agents, both hormonal and nonhormonal in nature, was examined on the action of this antimetabolite. Inorganic cobalt, demonstrated to be a potent erythropoietic agent, produced when administered with 50-276 a marked depression in the numbers of nucleated red cells and neutrophilic and eosinophilic elements of the marrow. Similar effects on the neutrophilic and eosinophilic components of marrow were noted when cortisone was given along with the antimetabolite. Growth hormone potentiated the depressive action of the antimetabolite on the marrow neutrophilic elements. Testosterone was without effect. A plasma filtrate obtained from rabbits rendered anemic by phenylhydrazine significantly increased bone marrow cellularity in intact rats. The combination of the filtrate and 50-276 resulted in a greater lowering in the numbers of mature marrow neutrophils than was evident with the antimetabolite alone. Phenylhydrazine induced a striking increase in the numbers of nucleated red cells and a diminution in the numbers of total neutrophils and lymphocytes within the marrow. When it was administered with 50-276 a marked lowering occurred in the numbers of marrow neutrophils, lymphocytes and eosinophils. Marrow erythropoietic activity, however, remained significantly above control levels.

Several possible mechanisms are proposed for the potentiated depressive effects produced by the various agents employed. These envision the provocative agent as acting by (1) augmenting the incorporation of the antimetabolite into the affected cells, (2) inhibiting a system, possibly enzymatic in nature, concerned in cellular proliferation, (3) increasing the need for or metabolism of an essential nutrient or (4) enhancing the inactivation or excretion of the antimetabolite. The concept is advanced that hormones may act within the body by regulating the availability to the different cell lines of specific naturally occurring agents which inhibit or accelerate growth and maturation processes.

### Acknowledgments

We are indebted to Dr S Bieber Wellcome Research Laboratories for the 2,4-diaminopyrimidine Dr W Kleinberg Princeton Laboratories Inc and Drs W J Haines and S L Steelman The Armour Laboratories for the growth preparations Dr H J Robinson Merck and Co Inc for the cortisol and Dr L J Klotz Lloyd Bros Inc for the cobalt

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## Added Comment<sup>1</sup>

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I should like to open this brief discussion by emphasizing a point of view concerning the influence of certain adrenal cortical steroids on lymphopoiesis. In order to save time I shall summarize that which is considered to be fairly definitely proved by the work in our laboratory as well as conclusions drawn from the work of others.

First of all the dramatic effect of the C 11 oxygenated corticosteroids on the destruction of lymphocytes has been considered to be of singular importance. It should be pointed out that in the very first description of this event attention was drawn to the fact that only the smaller mature lymphocytes of lymphatic organs and those found in the blood were lysed by increased amounts of adrenal cortical steroids (3). Immature cells of the lymph nodes particularly do not show marked morphological evidence of destruction (3). This does not mean that biochemical alterations of some sort may not have been induced in these cells. Nevertheless even overwhelming amounts (fatal in 16 days of treatment) of adrenal steroids do not produce cellular destruction of reticular lymphocytes (2). A second and most important point which was also emphasized (3) was that there is a definite suppression of mitosis of lymphocytes. This early observation has been strengthened by the fact that it has been shown that there is a linear dose response relationship between the amount of hormone and the depression of the number of mitotic figures in the thymus (4). This was suggested as an assay method but the amount of work involved limits its usefulness.

An additional and probably important finding with respect to hormonal regulation of lymphopoiesis is that heteroplastic differentiation is inhibited as long as large doses of either adrenal cortical steroids or

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<sup>1</sup> Origin in 1 work reported in collaboration with Martha L. Berliner and David L. Berliner



ACTH are administered to the experimental animal (2) Heteroplasia is rapidly resumed on cessation of hormone treatment (2)

In addition a considerable amount is known about the structure activity relations among the various adrenal cortical hormones with respect to the processes summarized above (5) First unsaturation of ring A is essential Second an  $\alpha$  hydroxyl group at position 17 is essential and unlike the situation for the anti inflammatory effect a  $\beta$  hydroxyl group at position 11 markedly enhances lymphoid suppressing activity Further as we now know reduction of the C 20 position also eliminates lymphocyte suppressing activity (unpublished observations) That alterations in the substitutions of the phenanthrene nucleus produce markedly different degrees of potency is illustrated by the fact that linear regressions of lymphatic organs are obtained by graded doses of these hormones so that comparisons of potency ratios can be made (5) Further evidence from this laboratory is accumulating which indicates that structural differences in these hormones may be related to different effects on lymphatic cells

With respect to lymphatic leukemia we have long stressed the point that adrenal cortical hormones which influence lymphopoiesis also may produce similar effects on lymphatic leukemic cells It has also been apparent however that a greater amount of hormone is required per unit leukemic cell to produce effects similar to those found in normal lymphatic tissue Among the normal lymphatic cells only reticular lymphocytes appear to have similar degrees of resistance The operational point of view with respect to the study of lymphatic leukemia thus emphasizes the differences in response of normal lymphatic tissue cells and lymphatic leukemia cells to adrenal cortical hormones having similar structural characteristics I wish to emphasize that the same hormones which influence lymphopoiesis also affect other cells Also therefore all the changes produced in treatment of lymphatic leukemia may not be ascribed to the effects outlined here The most direct approach to this problem however is to study the relationship of adrenal hormones to the rates of differentiation multiplication and death of lymphocytes which are processes influenced by these hormones in the normal course of events (1) In essence then an important problem with respect to lymphatic leukemia resolves itself into the question of why normal and lymphatic leukemia cells differ with respect to their responses to adrenal cortical steroids

The investigations which are briefly to be described here are those of Drs Martha and David Berliner Time does not permit a complete account of these studies nor can I go into the details of the methods used

Publications in press will deal with these results

The following experiments were performed with lymphatic leukemic and normal lymphocytes. Radioactive cortisol labeled in the C 4 position was incubated with malignant cells and normal lymphocytes. It was found that the malignant cell catabolizes cortisol and converts it to at least five different steroid hormones *in vitro*. The normal lymphocyte has no such capacity and at no time have any metabolites been observed from normal lymphocytes (with the exception of small amounts of cortisone).

Cortisol-4 C<sup>14</sup> at zero time when incubated with normal spleen demonstrates only the cortisol peak on the paper chromatogram (Fig. 1). Therefore the extraction procedure did not affect the molecule of cortisol. Similarly, if the normal spleen is incubated for 4 to 6 hours, no other peaks of radioactivity are found. When the spleens of AK mice having lymphatic leukemia were incubated for 6 hours, however, we found five different steroid hormone products. Through a brilliant series of investigations by the Berliners these have now been identified. They found for example that the products of metabolism are Reichstein's substance U, cortisone, Reichstein's substance E, and 11  $\beta$  hydroxy androstenedione (See Fig. 2).

Normal lymph nodes (2 g. incubated with 50  $\gamma$  4 C<sup>14</sup> cortisol) for 6 hours did give a very small amount of cortisone but none of the other metabolic products. Suspensions of cells from AK mice having leukemia produced the same metabolites as cells from their spleens.

The question as to whether this is a general metabolic property of lymphatic leukemia cells was investigated by incubating 4 C<sup>14</sup> labeled cortisol with suspension of cells taken from spleens or lymph nodes of AK mice bearing transplanted lymphatic leukemia cells. The same metabolic products were isolated in three different experiments using cells from three different donors with spontaneously occurring lymphatic leukemia. Also cells taken from areas of subcutaneous tumor growths of transplanted cells behaved in the same fashion. It appears then that mouse acute lymphatic leukemic cells of AK strain have the property of catabolizing cortisol in the same fashion. Lymphatic leukemic cells taken from buffy coats of three different patients also showed the same metabolic products. Equivalent numbers of buffy coat cells from patients having infectious lymphocytosis did not catabolize cortisol *in vitro*. Although this metabolic property of lymphatic leukemic cells seems to be constant, it appears from preliminary evidence that the human myelogenous leukemia cells and cells of the Gardner lymphosarcoma do not display the same metabolic pathways as those demonstrated for lym

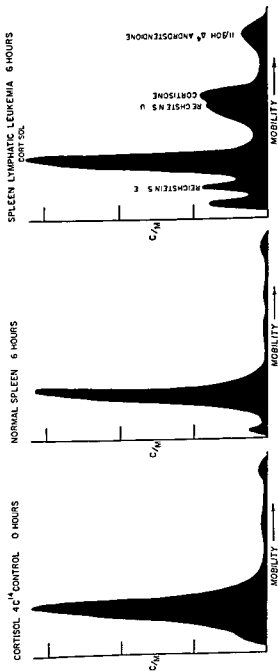


FIG. 1. Chromatograms showing peaks of radioactivity representing the metabolites of cortisol in the lymphatic leukemia tissue as compared with the recuperation of cortisol and normal spleen incubations.

phatic leukemia These tumor cells catabolize cortisol but yield different compounds

The metabolic products of cortisol are formed in a cyclic fashion through the influence of the lymphatic leukemic cell (Fig 2) Cortisol goes to cortisone by a process of oxidation of the C 11 position This then through  $\beta$  20 reductase brings about a reduction in the 20 position producing a  $\beta$  hydroxy compound Reichstein's substance U This product is then converted to Reichstein's substance E through reduction of the C 11 position It is most interesting that the cycle terminates in

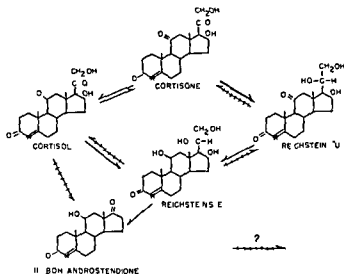


FIG 2 Cycle of transformations of cortisol by lymphatic leukemia cells

the production of a C 19 compound i e the whole side chain is removed and cortisol is eventually converted to 11  $\beta$  hydroxyandrostenedione This product cannot be reversed to any of the other catabolites so that the cycle here is interrupted and the C 19 compound is the final catabolic product

The reason we know this is a cycle is that incubates of 4 C<sup>14</sup> cortisol taken at hourly intervals show the progressive occurrence of the metabolites Furthermore the reversibility from cortisone to cortisol and from Reichstein's E to Reichstein's U has been established as well

The possible significance of these findings in relation to the etiology of leukemia can only be ascertained by future work It seems adequately

established however that cortisol is a normal regulatory hormone of lymphatic cell growth and differentiation. It is possible that immature lymphocytes may also have the capacity to catabolize cortisol and in this way differentiation of the immature cell is inhibited. In any case it seems warranted to hypothesize that a significant difference between normal maturing lymphocytes and lymphatic leukemic cells is that the hormone which influences normal lymphopoiesis is catabolized and converted to ineffective lymphocytolytic (tested in our laboratory) products by the leukemic cell. In this way the leukemic lymphocyte maintains itself in a persistent immature state.

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## General Discussion

DR SALVATORE P LUCIA (San Francisco California) I should like to make a statement in regard to Dr Craddock's paper which I think is an unusually good one especially since it gives us some means of understanding the characteristic responses of the hematopoietic system and how it reacts to recovery from stress reactions induced in it.

It reminds me of some very early experiments we did long before we could determine nuclear reactions of affected tissues. I remember some of the peculiar leukopenias that were induced by marrow toxic agents especially amidopyrine and we observed then that if the marrow taps demonstrated a marked depression within the marrow the patients did not recover. If the marrow were loaded with cells however even though there was no response to any of the so-called stimulating agents in the peripheral blood namely the pentose and hexose nucleotides those patients recovered. Curiously the recovery began to be manifested along about the fourth day—the same type of reaction which Dr Craddock has observed in his animals. I wonder if he has performed any experiments in his animals to demonstrate what was going on quantitatively or qualitatively in the marrow during these stress reactions after leukophoresis.

DR ISRAEL DAVIDSON (Chicago Illinois) I too have a question for Dr Craddock. He mentioned that there was no effect on the maturity of the white cells

appearing after the leukopheresis experiments in other words there was no shift to the left. What I should like to know is whether there was any change in the granulocyte lymphocyte ratio.

Another thing he mentioned was that apparently there was no change in the bone marrow. Could it possibly be due to the fact that this was a rather short term experiment? What was the longest time that the animals were subjected to the leukopheresis?

DR E. A. McCULLOCH (Toronto, Canada): I should like to make a comment on the cultivation of leukocytes.

In several laboratories including that of Dr. Raymond Parker in Toronto, long term cultures of various tissues of mesenchymal and epithelial origin have been observed to undergo sudden morphologic and physiologic change after which the cells multiply rapidly and may be washed, centrifuged, and subcultured with ease. The same phenomenon occurs in cultures of leukemic leukocytes. After 24 hours cultivation these cells have lost the distinctive features of the leukocytes of the body. The nucleus occupies most of the cell and the cytoplasm is scanty and devoid of specific granules. During the next 2 to 4 days the cells spread out on the glass and develop prominent undulating membranes. The nucleus is central with a single nucleolus; the cytoplasm is dense, coarsely granular, and stains blue with Wright's stain. For 2 to 8 weeks these features remain although the cells increase in size. During this period the population of the culture declines in spite of continued mitosis. This decline may continue until all the cells are dead. If continuous cultivation is to be achieved, the cell must become altered in appearance and behavior. The new cells, which resemble Earle's L strain in appearance, multiply vigorously and cells of the previously dominant type are no longer observed. Once these altered cells have appeared, the strain may be maintained indefinitely, thus providing a plentiful supply of relatively uniform cells useful in many types of experiments. However, the altered cells cannot readily be identified with their ancestors in the body.

There are two suggestions that I wish to make. First, I feel we should exercise great caution in applying ordinary hematological names to any cells that have been maintained in culture even for a short time. Second, experimental results obtained with cells in culture should not be used without reserve to explain the behavior of cells still present in the body. This is especially important when long term culture has been achieved.

DR EDWIN E. OSGOOD (Portland, Oregon): We have observed changes in cell over time, but as you noticed, we had almost every type that we saw later, as early as 24 hours to 8 days in the culture. We have interpreted some of these variations as acclimation to the medium and to the particular conditions of culture, and we have noticed that if we change from human serum to horse serum there is a short period of adjustment.

We would agree that certainly the tissue culture environment is not identical with the environment within the body, but I do feel that studies on these cells may prove very useful in revealing more about what the metabolic requirements of cells are.

We did notice that cells from the chronic leukemias tend to become more acute in culture, and we regard this as a second mutation in its broadest sense, leading to

a further shortening of the life span. We have also noted that removal of the mature cell may be necessary in the culture of normal cells.

There is so much left to learn that I hesitate to make any definitive interpretation of just why these cells are so difficult to grow for the first 6 months and so easy to grow thereafter.

DR JØRGEN KJELER (Copenhagen, Denmark). The transformation of the hemic cells into fibroblast or fibrocytic cells as far as morphology is concerned in tissue culture has been observed by many authors and it is of course a running discussion whether these cells are derived from the typical blood cells or whether they may be a specific cell type.

I think you should be cautious not to base too much on the morphology of cells *in vitro*. It is known that you may get quite different impressions of the type of cell you are working with when you are studying them under various conditions. I think Dr Osgood has mentioned in one of his papers that fibroblast like cells when they are smeared may turn out to be real hemic cells.

What type of cells they are—these cells which were just shown—I think we should leave for the future to decide.

DR C. G. CRADDOCK, JR (Fort Ord, California). The fact that we do not observe much change grossly in the marrow agrees with the opinion that the amount of cells that we remove by leukopheresis even if we carry it out for a long period of time—and we have carried out such procedures for as long as 24 hours—is only a small fraction in terms of say 0.1 to 0.2% of the number of cells in the bone marrow.

In other words what the marrow does when we leukopherese is merely to respond to the stress (if you want to call it that) by releasing cells that it has in storage. The factor of increased production of cells in terms of new cell production and accelerated maturation and growth is a slower phenomenon and requires several days to occur.

The only consistent changes which we noticed in the marrow of these normal dogs were some degree of myeloid hyperplasia in the marrow and left shift in the blood at the time 4 to 5 days after the procedure had been initiated.

We feel that this indicates that there is a large reserve supply of leukocytes within the bone marrow and that even if production is totally ablated as by whole body irradiation there are relatively enormous numbers of these cells in the marrow which can come out into the peripheral blood and maintain the leukocyte numbers for some time unless there is also accelerated distribution of these cells to the tissues as there is in heavily irradiated animals.

As stated in the paper the response to leukopheresis involves neutrophilic leukocytes only. The lymphoid cells do not take part in the leukocytosis after the procedure.

## The Influence of Cellular Fractions of Whole Blood on the Course of Acute Lymphocytic Leukemia A Preliminary Report

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The course of acute lymphocytic leukemia is often progressive and inexorably failing. On frequent occasions, however, the clinical and hematological status will reach an apparent state of quiescence for variable periods. In rare instances, the leukemic state without apparent reason has been observed to undergo remission temporarily with disappearance of the clinical and hematological attributes so diagnostic of the leukemias. The fact that a rapidly progressive disease can establish a state of equilibrium suggests that some restraining influences on the course of the leukemias may exist.

Since the level of leukocytes in the peripheral blood in one sense reflects and perhaps regulates the hemostatic state (4), it was thought that the leukocytes themselves, perhaps through their products, might influence the physiological behavior of leukocytes and hematopoiesis in general.

Leukopheresis in dogs is an efficient leukopoietic stimulant (3, 7, 8). This procedure requires the separation of leukocytes from large volumes of whole blood by centrifugation and the withholding of leukocytes and the reinfusion of the plasma, red cells, and platelets.

The problem of leukopheresis in man is more formidable, requiring the separation of leukocytes from 5 to 20 l of whole blood per hour as compared to 1 to 3 l per hour in the dog. In the course of such separation, large numbers of leukocytes and platelets are undoubtedly damaged, and fragments of these leukocytes and platelets as well as the products thereof, together with some intact and slightly damaged leuko-



cytes are probably reinfused inadvertently with the red cell mass and plasma

The Cohn blood fractionator was originally devised to separate large volumes of plasma from whole blood (17). Its use as a device for rapid leukopheresis in man was undertaken with the full cognizance of its limitations. The operation of the Cohn fractionator at flows of up to approximately 100 to 120 ml/min (roughly twice that recommended for optimal separation of leukocytes) and at 5000 rpm (3800 rpm is the recommended speed) results in disintegration of a large number of leukocytes (13). The separation of leukocytes from whole blood under these circumstances results in a cellular preparation which contains leukocytes, platelets and various products of disintegration. The infusion of these cellular preparations affords the opportunity to observe the effects of white cells plus cellular disintegration products. These observations serve as a starting point in leukopheresis in man.

### Methods

Eleven children with acute lymphocytic leukemia repeatedly received intravenous infusions of fresh cellular preparations of whole blood. All diagnoses were proved by at least two bone marrow aspirations, repeated observations of the peripheral blood, the history, physical examination, clinical laboratory findings and the clinical course of the disease.

All studies were conducted under strict hospital observation. In all instances the patients were critically ill, failing and usually with active hemorrhagic phenomena. Antileukemic chemotherapeutic agents had been tried previously in 9 of the 11 patients. Standard hematological procedures were employed as previously described (5). National Bureau of Standards certified hemocytometers and Trenner automatic filling pipets were used throughout. Differential leukocyte counts were usually made by the supravital technique and confirmed later by fixed preparations with Wright's stain. Microhematocrit determinations were employed in a majority of instances. The remaining observations were by standard hematocrit procedures or colorimetric hemoglobin determinations.

The cellular preparations of blood were obtained from compatible donors (ABO and Rh) and processed through the ADL Cohn blood fractionator. The cellular preparations consisted largely of platelets and leukocytes and are specifically to be distinguished from what is classically known as the buffy coat. Various factors of separation in the Cohn blood fractionator such as centrifugal force, rate of separation, tempera-

ture and rate of flow of donor blood into the fractionator materially influence the composition of the cellular fraction

For clarity and simplicity of terminology the cellular fractions of blood derived from the Cohn fractionator were arbitrarily designated cellular preparations (CP) with numerical subscripts to denote the revolutions per minute which determined the centrifugal force during which the fractions were obtained (13). Thus CP<sub>5</sub> was that fraction of the cellular component of whole blood spun at 5000 rpm and obtained from that portion of the fractionator flow which followed immediately after the plasma was delivered and continued until the hematocrit approached approximately 10 to 15%.

These cellular preparations as separated from whole blood contained both intact and fragmented leukocytes and products thereof. There was no apparent significant platelet or erythrocyte disintegration. The results of 100 cellular preparations indicate that CP<sub>5</sub> derived from one unit of blood was equivalent to 220 000 platelets/mm<sup>3</sup> or a total of  $22 \times 10^6 \pm 10 \times 10^6$  platelets. There were 11 000 WBC/mm<sup>3</sup> or  $11 \times 10^6 \pm 0.2 \times 10^6$  leukocytes. There were probably at least an equal number of leukocytes which were fragmented during separation and would therefore not be reflected in the leukocyte count. The average hematocrit was  $12 \pm 5\%$ . There was sufficient plasma to make a total volume of 60 to 100 ml.

Separation of the cellular preparations was completed within an hour after the blood was drawn from the donor and administered usually within 1 to 4 hours after separation. Cellular preparations from two or three compatible donors were often pooled to afford infusions of 120 to 300 ml.

### Results

Crude cellular fractions of whole blood (CP<sub>5</sub>) as described above were administered to 11 patients with acute lymphocytic leukemia in the active progressive phase (Table I).

In 5 patients profound but temporary clinical or hematological changes characterized by a precipitous drop in the circulating leukocyte level were recorded within 4 days (Table I Figs 1 and 2). Large fluctuations in the platelet count were observed and 7 to 14 days later the pretreatment diminished platelet number began to return toward normal levels (Fig 3). One to three weeks later the hematocrit was observed to rise. Marked clinical improvement was noted characterized by a sudden sense of well being, increased activity and loss of irritability and associated with a decrease in hepatosplenomegaly and marked decrease in cervical axillary and inguinal adenopathy.

Bone marrow aspirates in 3 of the 5 patients became predominantly granulocytic from a previously completely lymphocytic myelogram (Fig 4) Immature lymphocytes were still detected in these marrows how

# GRA ♂ 5 Acute Lymphocytic Leukemia

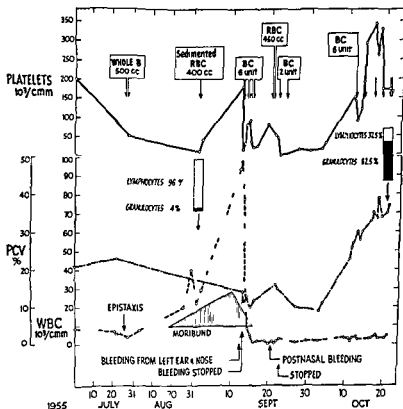


FIG 1 Clinical course of a 5 year old boy with acute lymphocytic leukemia Administration of cellular preparation on 9 13 (noted as BC on chart) primarily for bleeding when child was moribund with prompt control Subsequent administration of cellular preparation for recurrence of postnasal bleeding which also responded promptly to infusions of CP<sub>5</sub> derived from 2 units of whole blood Note the rise in hematocrit during the following month without any therapy other than cellular preparations also temporary rise in platelet level during the 2 weeks after administration of CP<sub>5</sub>

ever although markedly reduced in percentage Increase in early erythropoietic cells was noted No destruction of the marrow elements was observed

Of the 6 remaining patients 3 exhibited slight clinical improvement

with an increase in circulating platelet and hematocrit levels but without marked alterations in the leukocyte number or differential. In all these patients no significant change was observed in the bone marrow aspirates and only minor alterations in erythropoiesis were observed in

### GRA # 5 Acute Lymphocytic Leukemia

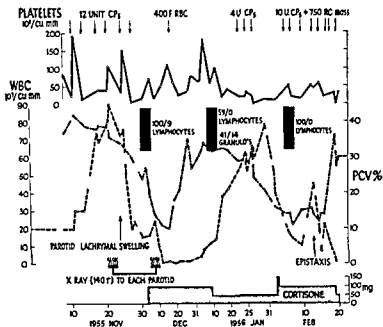


FIG 2 Subsequent course of GRA (5-year old boy with acute lymphocytic leukemia) illustrating the second fall of leukocyte number after reinstitution of infusions of CP<sub>5</sub>. Bone marrow in the blocked area showing 100% lymphocytes of which nine were lymphoblasts. Despite the administration of cortisone (100 mg/day) note the rising leukocyte level and falling hematocrit. Bone marrow reverted from 59% lymphocytic and 41% granulocytic to 100% lymphocytic picture. Despite administration of cellular preparation repeatedly and elevation of the hematocrit to 30 the child expired with a leukocyte level of 350/mm<sup>3</sup>.

these marrow aspirates. Some decrease in lymphadenopathy and hepatosplenomegaly with slight clinical improvement was observed in 3 of the 6 patients. In the remaining 3 patients no significant clinical or hematological changes were observed.

No untoward reactions were observed with the repeated administration of CP<sub>5</sub> except in 2 patients who experienced mild urticaria toward

the end of a transfusion of the cell preparation which responded promptly and completely to antihistamine drug therapy

The clinical and hematological changes were temporary in all instances lasting from 2 to 8 weeks. Eight of these 11 patients expired within 5 months after the initiation of CP infusions (Table I)

One child GRA who initially had exhibited dramatic improvement

### REE ♀ 5 Leukemic Phase of Lymphosarcoma

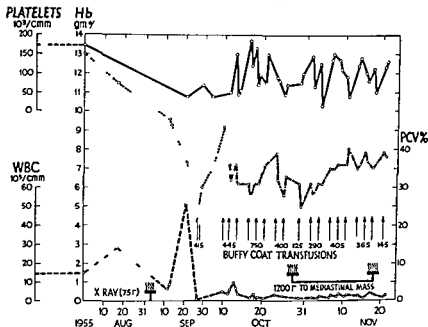


FIG 3 Chart of 5 year old girl with acute lymphocytic leukemia in conjunction with lymphosarcoma illustrating prompt fall in peripheral leukocyte level with elevated hemoglobin level after an infusion of CP<sub>6</sub> (listed on chart as buffy coat transfusion) from 4 units of whole blood. Packed cell volume was substituted for hemoglobin determinations after September 10. Note fluctuating platelet level presumably related to the infusion of platelets

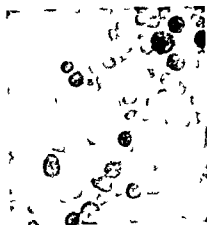
after the infusion of CP developed supraclavicular cervical adenopathy followed shortly thereafter by enlargement of the parotid and lacrimal areas (Fig 5). These proved exceedingly responsive to small doses of x irradiation (140 r to each parotid). This child eventually succumbed (5 months later) with an extensive femoral and iliac vein thrombosis despite all measures (Fig 6). The leukocyte count was at 350 mm<sup>3</sup>. Post mortem examination revealed only a few small lymph nodes without lymphocytic infiltration (Fig 7). Follicular atrophy in a 570-g

## GRA ♂ 6 All - Marrow

7-28-55

MYEL - 1  
LYMPHS - 99/50

10-21-55

PMN - 43  
MYEL - 20  
LYMPHS - 37/1  
RBC - 18

a



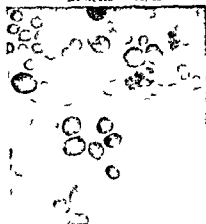
b

## REE ♀ 6 All - Marrow

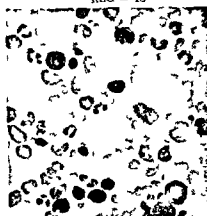
9-15-55

PMN - 2  
MYEL - 3  
LYMPHS - 95/41

12-55

PMN - 4  
MYEL - 21  
LYMPHS - 55/10  
RBC - 13

c



d

FIG 4 Comparative myelograms in 2 patients with acute lymphocytic leukemia illustrating change to active granulopoiesis and erythropoiesis after repeated infusions of CP<sub>2</sub>. The code noting lymphs 99/50 designates 99% lymphocytes of which 50 were lymphoblasts

the end of a transfusion of the cell preparation which responded promptly and completely to antihistamine drug therapy

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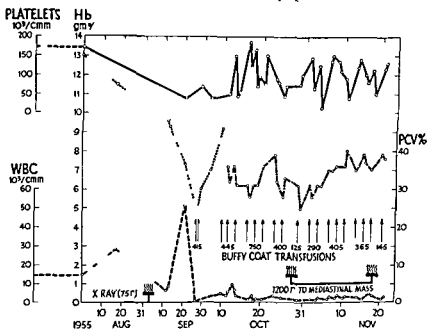


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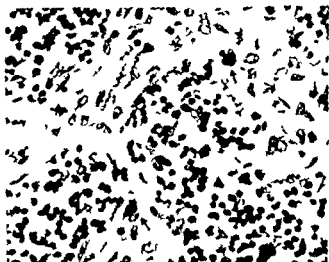


FIG 7 Mediastinal lymph node. Leukemic lymphocytes are scarce, accentuating the presence of reticulum cells. Note lymphophagocytosis of reticulum cells in the medullary sinuses.

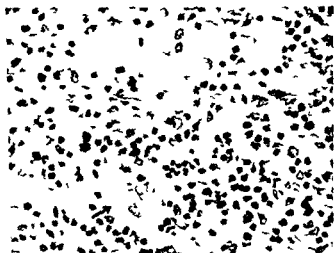


FIG 8 Spleen. Extreme follicular atrophy. Note the absence of follicular structure around the central artery, with marked blood congestion and moderate hemosiderosis.



## GRA ♂ 5 Acute Lymphocytic Leukemia

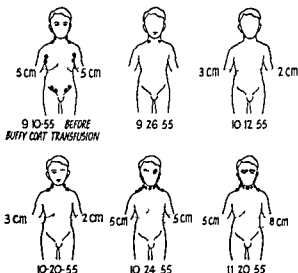


FIG 5 Schematic representation of enlargement of parotid cervical and lachrymal areas which responded rapidly to 140 r to each parotid

Note 11/22/55 to 12/1/55 Radiation Therapy to Parotid & Cervical Areas  
 Responded Favorably Parotid & Cervical Glands Regressed But Liver & Spleen the Same



FIG 6 Left inguinal ligament about the femoral ring Formation of fibrin nets (thrombosis) in two veins and necrotic vessel walls (contributory cause of death)

### Discussion

Well documented profound remissions termed "spontaneous" have been observed in the leukemic state (11) Wintrobe (18) reported a remission of several months duration in one case of acute leukemia after repeated transfusions. He was unable to repeat this experience after renewed transfusions.

Diamond and Luhby (10) reported an incidence of 9% spontaneous remissions in acute leukemia without any therapy whatsoever. An additional 6% however had received blood transfusions (Diamond per



FIG 11 Kidney Diffuse infiltration of lymphocytes. Note the presence of protein exudate in the glomeruli with edema of the renal papillae—the probable cause of death.

sonal communication). Perhaps in these instances the term idiopathic remissions might be more suitable than "spontaneous" remissions.

The remissions obtained after exsanguination transfusions observed by Bessis and Bernard (1) and Croizat (9) may be evidence that the infusion of large volumes of blood in some manner causes profound ameliorative changes in certain of the leukemias.

In two clearly defined instances temporary yet profound remissions in acute lymphocytic leukemia were observed in children who were cross transfused with large volumes of blood from hematologically normal donors (2). In still another instance in which an adult patient with chronic granulocytic leukemia was cross transfused with a child with

spleen (Fig 8) and lymphatic infiltration of a 1580 g liver limited to the portal regions was found (Fig 9). In contrast the kidneys were markedly enlarged to 280 and 300 g (Fig 10) and were grossly and microscopically infiltrated with lymphocytes (Fig 11)



FIG 9 Liver Marked infiltration of lymphocytes in the portal regions with proliferation of pseudo bile ducts



FIG 10 Kidneys bisected illustrate massive enlargement and infiltration with leukemic leukocytes

deed crude. The leukocytes contain a myriad of complex bodies in both the cytoplasm and the nucleus each containing many chemical substances engaged in diverse reactions. The transient nature of these changes and the fact that the changes could not be sustained despite repeated administration of these cellular preparations make many reservations essential.

### Summary

Eleven patients with acute lymphocytic leukemia received a crude cellular preparation of whole blood  $CP_5$  as obtained from normal compatible donors and processed by the Cohn blood fractionator. Five of these patients exhibited a decrease in peripheral leukocyte count toward leukopenic levels and a gradual return of the platelet and hematocrit toward normal. Marked general clinical improvement occurred in 3 of these 5 patients with a decrease in hepatosplenomegaly and lymphadenopathy and prompt cessation of hemorrhagic tendencies for 1 to 6 days. Bone marrow aspirations in these 3 patients showed a change from a completely lymphocytic picture to one predominantly granulocytic. All changes were temporary and could not be sustained by continued infusions of the cellular preparation ( $CP_5$ ). The remaining 6 patients showed little or no significant changes.

The data suggest that the cellular preparation ( $CP_5$ ) of some donors as processed by the Cohn blood fractionator is capable of producing profound yet transient, hematological changes in some patients with acute lymphocytic leukemia. The preliminary nature of these studies is emphasized.

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acute lymphocytic leukemia a remission for 3 months was induced in the child

In three instances the infusion of blood obtained from patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia and transfused into children with acute lymphocytic leukemia was followed by transient beneficial clinical and hematological changes (Bierman Kelly Cordes and Byron unpublished data). No similar effects were observed either in cross transfusion or simple transfusion of blood from patients with lymphocytic leukemia into patients with acute leukemia

These data suggest that temporary hematologic and clinical changes in the acute leukemias may be induced on occasion by large volumes of normal whole blood or by blood from patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia

Cooke (6) reported remissions of acute leukemia in children after the infusion of bone marrow extract. On the other hand neither Forkner (12) nor Meyer *et al* (15) were able to produce any effect whatsoever by the administration of raw bone marrow lymph nodes spleen duodenum or extracts thereof

Previous work on infusion of cells and cell extracts by Cooke (6) Reznikoff (16) Marberg (14) and many others has been sufficiently suggestive as to make one anticipate that some unusual effects might be encountered after the infusion of crude cellular preparations and cell products. To avoid the uncertain complications of solvents denaturation of cellular materials or inaccuracy of some types of extracts in the current study the crude cellular preparations were infused in the unaltered fresh state

Since many unusual hematological changes can be observed after infusion of crude cellular preparations one must also consider the possibility remote as it is that some of the hematological changes during chemotherapy with mustards x-ray therapy the metabolic antagonists and the corticoids may in part be due to the products of destruction of the large numbers of leukocytes in addition to the direct effect of the chemical on the leukemic cell in its life history

Since it is known that the infusion of large numbers of erythrocytes into normal patients will be followed by a depression of erythropoiesis one may speculate that in a similar fashion the infusion of large numbers of leukocytes might depress leukocyte production. In leukopheresis the removal of large numbers of leukocytes is followed by apparent stimulation of leukopoiesis in the marrow

It should be stressed that these are merely preliminary observations and must be interpreted accordingly. The cellular preparations are in

## The Leukocytic Resistance Test

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White blood cells placed in a hypotonic salt solution (0.20%) in time undergo lysis in ever increasing numbers. But the time it takes for this to occur varies considerably depending on whether polymorphs or lymphocytes or other blood cells are treated. Therefore it appears that diverse types of blood cells have different degree of resistance to the lytic action of the hypotonic solution.

From the preceding constataion was born the concept of *leukocytic resistance* (LR) which we formulated in 1951. This concept does not appear in the hematological literature which is surprising when one considers how fruitful was the analogous concept of erythrocytic resistance.

To evaluate LR we proceed thus. A determination is made every  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour for 3 hours of the percentage of the integral remaining white blood cells, the polymorphs and lymphocytes being counted separately. Thus we obtain two curves which correspond to the resistance of the white blood cells to the lytic action of the hypotonic solution.

Figure 1 represents resistance curves of polymorphonuclear and mononuclear white blood cells in normal subjects. After 3 hours in the solution 80% of the polymorphs but only 60% of the mononuclear cells are destroyed, indicating the greatly different fragility of the two cellular types to the hypotonic solution. These curves represent the average values computed statistically for 200 normal subjects. We have also found that (1) the LR curves are constant in normal subjects within a constant variability band as shown by statistical calculations and (2) the curves present modifications of different direction and intensity depending on various physiologic and pathologic conditions.

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between the single counts the pipet must be kept at normal room temperature (20 to 25 )

From the leukocytic figures resulting from these counts the percentages of decrease of white blood cells in respect to the initial count are obtained which when placed on the Cartesian diagram allow us to construct leukocytic resistance curves for the mono and polynuclear cells (see Fig 1)

The single counts are carried out with a Buerker chamber and microscopic observation by darkfield contrast and direct illumination For these counts recognition of the morphological characteristics of the leukocytes is aided by staining the cells lightly with Giemsa This staining is obtained by repeating the following procedure for each count

1 A tiny drop of Giemsa (about the size of a pinhead) is placed just in front of the Buerker cover slip

2 A drop of the pipet's contents is then allowed to fall on the drop of Giemsa the two drops are mixed in a slow rotatory motion with the tip of the pipet

3 Still with the tip of the pipet the liquid thus mixed (lightly colored in blue) is placed in contact with the margin of the Buerker cover slip

In such a way we obtain a homogeneous coloring of the cellular suspension and then through capillary action the Buerker counting chamber becomes filled up at this point the white blood cells are counted

Comparative determinations have shown that with this method of staining the concentration of the surrounding liquid is not sensitively modified and the results are not altered

The most delicate point of the entire determination is in being able to distinguish altered leukocytes from intact ones To avoid any mistaken ideas we think it is useful to show in Table I the morphological characteristics of the leukocytes which we judge to be intact and those which we hold to be altered and which (in the counts after the initial one) are not counted

When one intends to use an index of leukocytic resistance especially for comparative purposes we propose as an index the area of the surface enclosed between the time axis the ordinates of the extreme points of the curve and the curve itself

Such an area is deduced by means of the following formula

$$\text{Resistance index} = \int_0^{\theta} y \, dx$$

$y$  being the interpolative function and  $x$  being the time the unity of which when measured graphically has been set at 30 minutes



### Method for Determining Leukocytic Resistance<sup>1</sup>

The necessary materials include a white blood cell counting pipet (preferably with a wide ampoule) a Buerker counting chamber a binocular microscope (a No 40 objective and a No 8 ocular 320X) NaCl solution exactly titrated at 0.20% and pure Giemsa (filtered a number of times until it is free of granules and precipitates)

Blood obtained from the fingertip is drawn into the counting pipet up to marker 1 and immediately after hypotonic NaCl solution is drawn

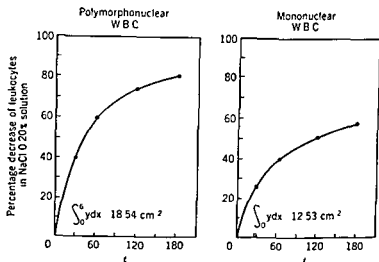


FIG 1 Resistance curves of polymorphonuclear and mononuclear white blood cells (average for 200 normal subjects) Resistance index =  $\int_0^t y dx$

up to marker 11. The pipet is agitated ten to fifteen times as is done with ordinary globular numerations and the first leukocyte count is immediately carried out. The mononuclear ones are counted separately from the polynuclear ones however and both the intact and the altered elements (if there be any present) are computed. Other counts are carried out with the remaining liquid in the pipet after 30, 60, 120 and 180 minutes only the intact elements are computed however. During the intervals

<sup>1</sup> About two years after publication of our method (*Progresso Medico* September 1952) Richards and Richards presented to the International Congress of Clinical Pathologists in Washington (September 1954) their method of determination of leukocytic resistance to hypotonic solutions. Their method differs from ours in technical details of execution and also in the fact that it does not differentiate between mono- and polynuclear cells.

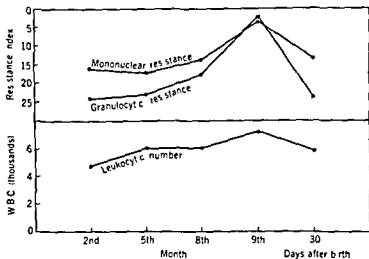


FIG. 2 Leukocytic resistance in pregnancy

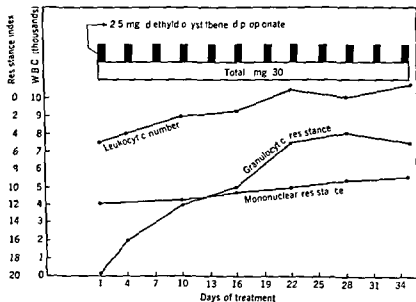





















FIG. 3 The effect of estrogens on leukocytic resistance

### Probable Significance of Leukocytic Resistance

Our studies of the past few years made under the most diverse conditions lead us to believe that L R reflects an aspect of the biological condition of the white blood cells probably related to the condition of its membrane or its enzymatic or biochemical makeup it is not improbable that L R constitutes also an indication of the condition of the leukopoietic marrow

TABLE I

	Mononuclear				Granulocytic			
Intact leucocytes								
Altered leucocytes								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
								
						10	11	12

1 6 8 11 12 = rupture of the membrane with loss of a fragment of the cytoplasm

2 4 = shriveling of the cytoplasm

3 = global alteration of the morphology of the cell

5 7 10 9 = Nucleus at the periphery of the cell and about to pass out of it

This presentation refers the variations in L R in the following conditions (1) physiological conditions such as exist during pregnancy or after prolonged administration of estrogens (2) grave marrow alterations e.g. benzol myelopathy (3) leukemias and (4) conditions due to the action of antimitotics

### LEUKOCYTIC RESISTANCE IN PHYSIOLOGIC CONDITIONS

Up to now we have found in normal subjects the most marked modifications of L R during pregnancy and after prolonged administration of estrogens. In Fig 2 is shown the great increase in L R especially at the ninth month in a healthy pregnant woman and its decrease about 1 month after childbirth. Note the parallel increase in the number of white blood cells reaching the maximum also at the ninth month. This behavior we believe is due principally to the high estrogen content which is found at term of pregnancy.

In fact in normal subjects after estrogen administration we note a corresponding increase in number and resistance of white blood cells (Fig 3). We shall see how this action of estrogen on L R can lessen the intensity of the decrease in white blood cells due to antimitotics.

blasts of the acute lymphatic leukemia are much less resistant than lymphocytes of normal blood

There is also a great difference between the resistance of the diverse types of myeloid leukemia cells. In fact in Fig 7 we see that the re

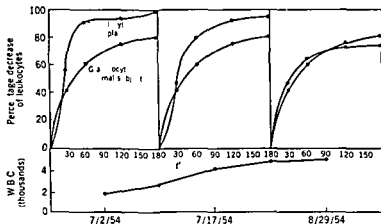


FIG 5 Marrow aplasia in recovery

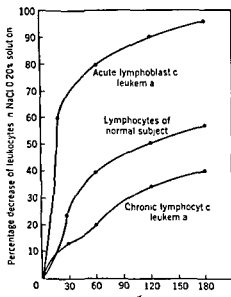


FIG 6 Lymphatic leukemia (ten cases examined)

### LEUKOCYTIC RESISTANCE IN MARROW APLASIA

In cases of grave marrow aplasia L.R. of the granulocytes has always been found to be greatly decreased compared to that of granulocytes of normal blood. This phenomenon is clearly shown in Fig. 4 for a case of marrow aplasia due to benzol. In cases of aplasia that are responding

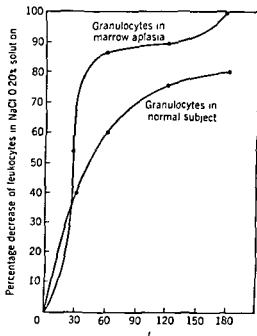


FIG. 4. Modifications of L.R. in marrow aplasia.

favorably it is interesting to note the progressive change of L.R. toward normal. Figure 5 relative to the preceding case (benzol) shows the parallel increase in the resistance of white blood cells and in their number.

### LEUKOCYTIC RESISTANCE IN THE LEUKEMIAS

The L.R. varies considerably depending on the cytological type of leukemia. We shall consider first the chronic and acute lymphatic leukemias.

Figure 6 demonstrates clearly that the lymphocytes of chronic lymphatic leukemia are more resistant to the hypotonic solution than lymphocytes of normal blood even though the latter are not distinguishable morphologically from the former. On the other hand the lympho-

blasts of the acute lymphatic leukemias are much less resistant than lymphocytes of normal blood

There is also a great difference between the resistance of the diverse types of myeloid leukemia cells. In fact in Fig 7 we see that the re

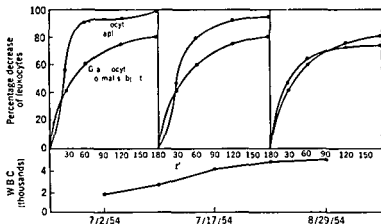


FIG 5 Marrow aplasia in recovery

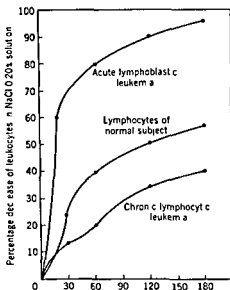


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There is also a great difference between the resistance of the diverse types of myeloid leukemia cells. In fact, in Fig 7 we see that the re-

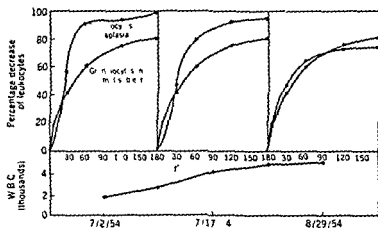


FIG 5 Marrow aplasia in recovery

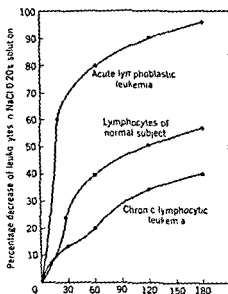


FIG 6 Lymphatic leukemia (ten cases examined)

### LEUKOCYTIC RESISTANCE IN MARROW APLASIA

In cases of grave marrow aplasia LR of the granulocytes has always been found to be greatly decreased compared to that of granulocytes of normal blood. This phenomenon is clearly shown in Fig 4 for a case of marrow aplasia due to benzol. In cases of aplasia that are responding

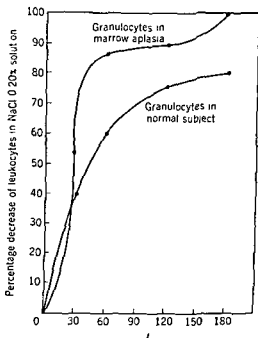


FIG 4 Modifications of LR in marrow aplasia

favorably it is interesting to note the progressive change of LR toward normal. Figure 5 relative to the preceding case (benzol) shows the parallel increase in the resistance of white blood cells and in their number.

### LEUKOCYTIC RESISTANCE IN THE LEUKEMIAS

The LR varies considerably depending on the cytological type of leukemia. We shall consider first the chronic and acute lymphatic leukemias.

Figure 6 demonstrates clearly that the lymphocytes of chronic lymphatic leukemia are more resistant to the hypotonic solution than lymphocytes of normal blood even though the latter are not distinguishable morphologically from the former. On the other hand the lympho-



sistance of the blood cells of chronic myelocytic leukemia is almost the same as that of granulocytes of normal blood. The resistance of the cells of acute myelocytic leukemia (promyelocytic myeloblastic type) is greatly increased however indicating an opposite behavior to that found in lymphoid leukemias.

Figure 8 shows that the hemocytoblasts in acute hemocytoblastic leukemia also have a resistance much higher than normal granulocytes and

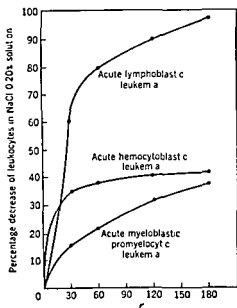


FIG. 9. Acute leukemias (twenty cases examined)

lymphocytes but very close to that of the myeloblasts and promyelocytes of acute myeloid leukemia.

In Fig. 9 is shown the different degrees of resistance of the cells predominating in the blood of the principal types of acute leukemias with the lymphoblasts very fragile, the myeloblasts and promyelocytes very resistant, and the hemocytoblasts with intermediate resistance.

We have also differentiated the acute myeloid from acute lymphoid leukemias on the basis of the histochemical characteristics of the cells.

The above data indicate the following: (1) Each of the principal types of leukemic cells has a resistance to hypotonic solution which is characteristic and constant. (2) It is possible to differentiate the prin-

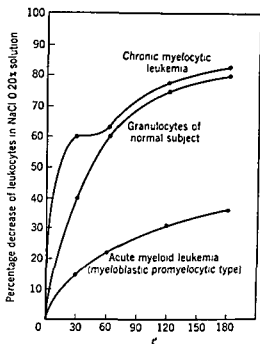


FIG 7 Myeloid leukemia (fifteen cases examined)

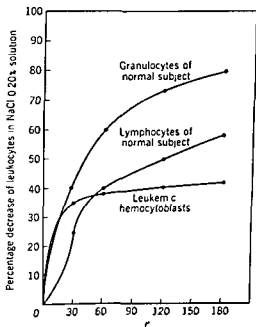


FIG 8 Hemocytoblastic leukemia (five cases examined)

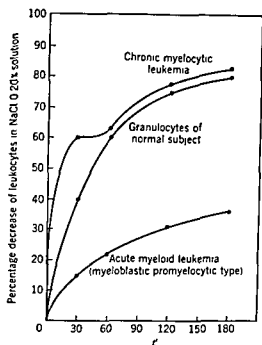


FIG 7 Myeloid leukemia (fifteen cases examined)

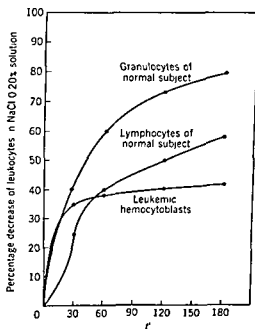


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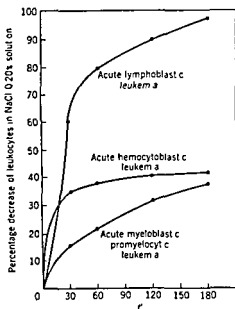


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The above data indicate the following: (1) Each of the principal types of leukemic cells has a resistance to hypotonic solution which is characteristic and constant. (2) It is possible to differentiate the prin-

principal types of leukemia especially the acute forms the cells of which often are rather difficult to distinguish on the basis of the resistance of their blood cells

#### LEUKOCYTIC RESISTANCE DUE TO ANTIMITOTICS

*Hodgkin's Disease* As I stated at the International Hematology Congress of 1954 (Paris) almost all common antimitotics effect a decrease in the resistance of white blood cells. This is verified with almost absolute regularity if the antimitotic is administered to subjects with nor

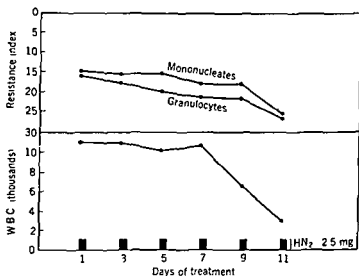


FIG. 10 Decrease in LR in a case of Hodgkin's disease treated with HN2

mal leukopoiesis. Furthermore such a decrease in most cases precedes the decrease in number of white blood cells.

Figure 10 shows a progressive decrease of LR in a case of Hodgkin's disease treated with HN2. This decrease is already evident when the number of white blood cells are still more or less unchanged. Therefore we see that the LR test can be utilized in treating cases with antimitotics with the purpose of avoiding dangerous leukopenias.

*Leukemias Treated with Antimitotics* In the majority of leukemia cases (not however in all) the common antimitotics effect a decrease in the resistance of leukemic cells to the hypotonic solution as has been shown in the granulocytes and lymphocytes in Hodgkin's disease. In Figs 11 and 12 we have a few examples.

Another noteworthy fact is that the steroid hormones, whether of the

cortisone hydrocortisone prednisone or prednisolone type in standard doses do not cause a decrease in LR

Figure 13 shows that in the same case of chronic lymphoid leukemia a treatment with prednisone did not result in a decrease either in the number of white blood cells or in their resistance although a later treatment with triethylene melamine provoked a rapid and parallel decrease

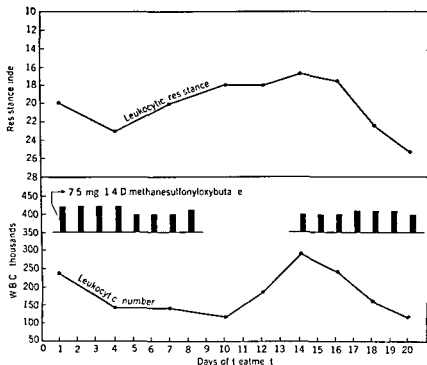


FIG 11 Chronic myeloid leukemia treated with d-methanesulfonyloxybutane (Myleran)

in number and resistance. In another case prednisone did not modify the resistance of the leukemic cells although it caused a decrease in their number.

The fact that unlike the common antimitotics the steroids do not affect LR constitutes another element which leads us to suppose that these two types of medicaments act on leukemic cells by entirely different mechanisms.

Figure 14 demonstrates however that in some cases of leukemia the antimitotic produces a decrease in the number of white blood cells and satisfactory clinical results without a corresponding decrease in resistance of the leukemic cells. Such behavior has never been seen by us in patients with normal leukopoiesis e.g. in Hodgkin's disease.

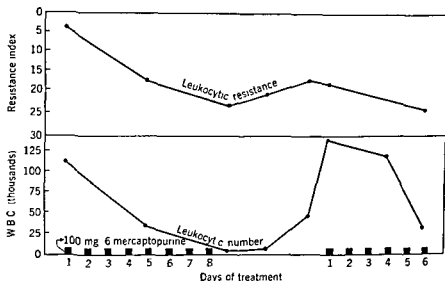


FIG 12 Acute hemocytoblastic leukemia treated with 6-mercaptopurine. The change in the number of leukemic cells caused by the treatment corresponds to the change in the resistance of these cells to the hypotonic solution.

### Leukocytic Resistance and Hypotheses on the Mechanism of Leukopenia Due to Antimitotics

We have shown the following to be true: (1) In conditions of normal leukopoiesis the decrease in the number of white blood cells due to antimitotics is regularly associated with but preceded by parallel decrease in their resistance. This has been verified in the leukemias to some degree. (2) However precocious and intense is the decrease in the resistance of the white blood cells, so much more intense and precocious is the decrease in their number. (3) In cases of benzene marrow aplasia the resistance of the white blood cells is notably decreased.

We further maintain that many antimitotics cause leukopenia through a double mechanism: (1) at the center inhibiting the proliferation (the known cytostatic action of such substances); (2) at the periphery decreasing the resistance of the white blood cells, thereby causing an increase of the peripheral leukolysis.

An extensive and very rapid decrease in the number of white blood cells which sometimes appears during antimitotic therapy is perhaps explained by recognizing the existence of this second mechanism. For the moment however we can present only an hypothesis which necessarily must be confirmed by observations on a vast number of cases.

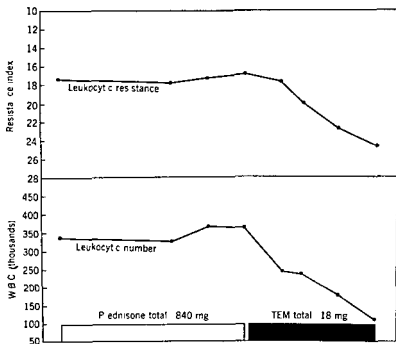


FIG 13 Chronic lymphoid leukemia treated first with prednisone and then with TEM

The above mentioned pathogenetic interpretation has also a practical value in as much as it gives us an insight into the possibility of lessening the decrease in white blood cells due to antimitotics thus causing an increase in resistance.

In fact at the recent Congress of Hematology (Geneva May 1955) my co worker Pederzini and I showed that administering diethylidioxystilbene dipropionate (synthetic estrogen) during the course of antimitotic therapy in many cases reduces the intensity of decrease in white blood cells caused by antimitotic therapy. The possibility of employing the estrogen for such a purpose came to us after our observations of the



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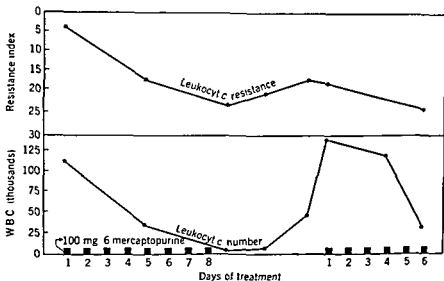


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but not in another analogous case would seem also to verify the great variability in the response of leukemia to antimitotic therapy

From a practical point of view it is evident that when a decrease in L.R. appears during antimitotic therapy it is justifiable to expect an imminent fall in the number of white blood cells. Thus we have established the usefulness of employing the L.R. test in the practical conduct of therapy of leukemia with antimitotics

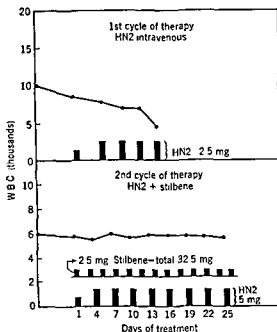


FIG 15 Case of Hodgkins disease treated first with HN2 and then with HN2 + stilbene

### Conclusion

On the basis of the few constataions set forth above it would seem that we can affirm that the resistance of the leukocytes to hypotonic saline solution can furnish interesting information of a qualitative order on the single leukocyte and probably also on the condition of the leukopoietic tissue. The leukocytic resistance test therefore constitutes an exploration of the physiology and physiopathology of the leukocytes. It takes its place alongside other tests already known to us but it has the advantage of being very easy to perform and therefore extremely ap

notable increase in LR which manifests itself at the ninth month of pregnancy

Figure 15 relative to a case of Hodgkin's disease shows that in the first cycle of therapy after 225 mg of HN2 the white blood cell count fell from 10 000 to 5000 in the second cycle after stilbene was administered at the same time as the antimetabolic the count fell from 6000 only to 5500 in spite of the fact that 425 mg of HN2 was administered

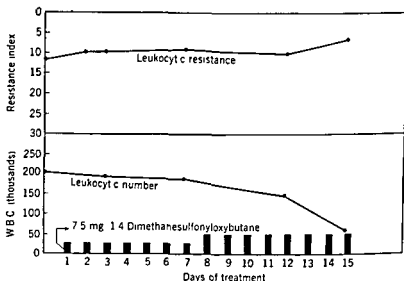


FIG 14 Chronic myeloid leukemia treated with dimethanesulfonyloxybutane

Let us now return to the argument that leukopenia can be caused by antimetotics. I have already said that among the cases studied by us there are a few in which the antimetotic brought about a notable decrease in the number of white blood cells but no decrease in their resistance. In regard to these cases it would seem that we can conclude that the antimetotic brought about only a cytostatic effect and not a cytolytic effect.

Now then we have seen both effects produced by the same antimetotic in different cases of leukemia which were of similar type.

We have never observed this in cases of normal leukopoiesis or in conditions not of leukemic type since as has already been said in such cases the antimetotics have regularly caused a decrease of LR although in a very different measure.

The fact (as indicated by the pattern of LR) that the same antimetotic can cause destruction of leukemic cells in one case of leukemia

This apparatus was designed for a flow rate always of less than 50 ml/min and a gravitational force of about  $100 \times g$ . If one wishes the apparatus can yield pure platelets with essentially no red cells, pure red cells with essentially no platelets and mixed populations of white cells in a proportion of about four white cells to one red cell.

DR SENCIO DECARVALHO (Cleveland, Ohio). Concerning the work of Dr Birman I should like to add a brief comment. We too are using fractions from human leukemic cells but in an entirely different way. Cytoplasmic fractions of acute leukemic cells are inoculated in standard cultures of human amniotic cells. After several subinoculations the culture fluid is injected into rabbits. The immune antiserum obtained shows a selective lytic activity for the original leukemic cells.

In one adult case of acute leukemia after the use of this serum the leukemic cells disappeared both from the blood and from the bone marrow and a remission either spontaneous or induced followed this administration for about one and a half years.

Now if I may go back to the work of Dr Kieler I am very anxious to ask him a question. The results of Dr Kieler's work, especially those obtained on acute leukemic cells, do not seem to me to be comparable with the results obtained by Dr Warburg lately on individual malignant cells. Since Dr Warburg in a recent publication was so positive in affirming that very high fermentation and very little respiration are characteristics of malignant cells independently of oxygenation I should like to ask Dr Kieler how he feels about this.

DR JØRGEN KIELER (Copenhagen, Denmark). I am sorry that the paper that was just referred to by Dr Warburg has not arrived at my laboratory yet so I am not familiar with it although I have had a chance here to have just a glimpse at it.

Of course the results we have obtained are in some respects contradictory to Warburg's hypothesis. I do not think however that it is possible on the basis of our observations to make a general statement as to the metabolism of cancer cells. On the other hand since cancer cells in all probability have a high energy metabolism I am satisfied with the fact that malignant cells at least in the case of leukemia may obtain their energy through respiration which is a much more efficient way of getting energy than through glycolysis. Other malignant cells should be examined with regard to the influence of oxygen tension on their respiration. The results of such experiments may lead to modifications of Warburg's general theory in which the glycolytic energy metabolism plays such an important role.

DR SVEN MORSCHMAN (Soluturn, Switzerland). I want to felicitate Dr Craddock on the wonderful work he did on the increased destruction of the leukocytes in the periphery. I think this work will be of great importance for the future because it proves in a very nice manner that the increased destruction of leukocytes is probably one of the main factors in granulocytopenia and leukocytosis.

On the other hand, I think the work of Stortz is also very interesting and I am sorry that he could not find a difference in chronic leukemia from normal leukocytes. We still find it impossible to correlate in leukemoid reactions various differences he uses. I presume they have also the same normal response. And so the whole problem of osteomyeloid sclerosis which would be very interesting to study will probably not be solved by this method.

plicable in current practice—e.g. for a more precise observation of leukopoiesis during the course of antimitotic therapy or perhaps as a means of determining the degree and mechanism of other antimitotics on the white blood cells

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# General Discussion

DR JAMES L. TULLIS (Jamaica Plain, Massachusetts) I should like to comment on Dr Bierman's paper. I have no remarks to make on the use to which he has put the Cohn fractionator or indeed on the interpretations of his clinical results. I feel however that I must rise in defense of what I believe is a totally erroneous interpretation that only crude cell fractions can be obtained from this machine.

I did not invent the apparatus but as one who has worked five years in its development I have the interest of a stepfather and at least some impression of what can be done with it.

This apparatus was not devised for leukopheresis experiments and as a result of this it cannot be interpreted as being immediately applicable to such techniques. If one uses the flow rates of 120 ml/min and centrifugal force of 5000 rpm as Dr Bierman has done and has shown on his graph it would be impossible to obtain anything but lysed white cells.

tions or cellular preparations from fresh whole blood containing primarily platelets and white cells might have some of this material that might correct the defect in the bleeding leukemic

Also it is apparent that the bleeding defect in the leukemias is probably a multiple entity. Platelet infusions although temporarily beneficial in controlling the bleeding phenomena will not protect for prolonged periods. We felt that perhaps by adding both the white cell and the platelet we might be adding more than one or two of the components that may be deficient.

Indeed clinically that seems to have worked out. In 31 of 50 recorded instances of active bleeding in 22 leukemic patients the hemorrhages have been stopped for at least 1 to 6 days almost immediately after the infusion of  $CP_5$ . In 19 instances although bleeding was halted in most it did not persist for 24 hours.

In answer to Dr. Lucia in most instances the platelet level did go up slightly but not consistently. The number of platelets that were infused was often insufficient for a sustained rise. Steffanini and Dameshek showed that one has to give approximately 4 billion platelets per pound of body weight to be able to obtain any significant rise.

DR. EDOARDO STORTI (Modena, Italy). In reply to Dr. Moeschlin's remarks it is true that the leukocytic resistance of the leukocytes in chronic myeloid leukemia is very similar to that of the normal granulocytes. It is necessary however to note that this behavior is characteristic of myeloid leukemia in its chronic form and of cells that are very mature. As soon as a case of chronic myeloid leukemia begins to show an unfavorable course and the percentage of myelocytes and promyelocytes in the peripheral blood increases however the leukocytic resistance also increases as compared to the normal granulocytes.

Actually this modification of the leukocytic resistance appears quite early and we use this phenomenon as prognostic criteria.

DR. A. S. GORDON (New York, New York). The marrow picture in the rat would support strongly Craddock's contention that there is a tremendous reserve of leukocytes. I have just made a rapid calculation based on our own data which indicates that the mature neutrophils within rat marrow outnumber those in the blood circulation by a factor of 80. This would imply that there is an 80 fold reserve of neutrophils that could be mobilized rapidly to replace the total population in the circulation.

With regard to Dr. Storti's observations we had some brief experience with leukocytic as well as erythrocytic resistance some years ago when I worked with Dr. Eric Ponder. We found that the resistance of the cells varied depending on the type of lysis used. For example the resistance of the blood elements toward such lytic agents as hypotonic saline and sodium taurocholate was of a different order from that shown toward saponin.

I should like to suggest that other lysins in addition to hypotonic saline be used in the Storti diagnostic test. This approach might yield additional valuable information regarding the nature of the leukocytic surface in various disease states.

DR SALVATORE P LUCIA (San Francisco California) I should like to say something in partial defense of the experiment of Dr Bierman I should like to state that he was able to get a remission of some significance in these children Whether it is a cause and effect reaction is difficult to ascertain but at least those who have treated leukemia in infants realize that if this is true without any reference to the researcher it is significant" What its ultimate meaning is is another matter entirely

I should like to know this First regardless of the techniques of the preparation of this material which I think was pretty heroic stuff to deal with did these children react with a fever reaction or a severe systemic response after the administration of the material? Second was there any evidence of purpura in these youngsters before the administration of the material and was it influenced since we saw that there had been remissions in the peripheral blood in the bone marrow and in the hemolymphopoietic organs as well? Lastly did you see as I saw a rather startling reciprocal relationship between the decrease in the white blood cell count and the maintenance or increase in the platelet count?

DR H R BIERMANN (Duarte California) First of all I want to pay due respect to Dr Tullis and his group because they taught us how to use the fractionator The Cohn Tullis fractionator was not designed originally for leukopheresis and as with many devices applications other than for the specified purpose often sacrifice one advantage for another

The Cohn fractionator can give good platelet rich plasma preparations even at 5000 r p m As I tried to make clear in the paper we were not primarily interested in obtaining completely intact leukocytes but rather in rapid separation and infusion to prevent the loss of possible labile components of the leukocytes Smears of leukocyte preparations obtained by different processes usually reveal much cellular disintegration despite all precautions We had previously studied the infusion of intact leukocytes and other cells by cross transfusion In this study we estimated about half of the cells were in some stage of disintegration

At 4 200 r p m or slower rates of flow one can get better cellular preparations at higher flow rates the purity of the preparation is sacrificed for fresher material

In reply to Dr DeCarvalho I do not believe at any time in this discussion that we talked about these studies as treatment These are strictly preliminary observations to determine what happens when large numbers of fresh leukocytes and platelets are infused

I believe it is very significant that this material despite its continued administration at 2 to 4 day intervals was unable to sustain these effects The observation that stored cellular preparation has shown no activity suggests that some of the factors are readily labile In answer to Dr Lucia's question Initially we employed the cellular preparations because of its possible antihemorrhagic potency It is well known that normal fresh whole blood or polycythemic fresh whole blood is very efficient in controlling the generalized bleeding in leukemias whereas bank blood is markedly less efficient The major difference between fresh and stored blood aside from postulating or speculating on some unusual plasma constituent would be platelets and white cells since most bank blood is administered at least 6 or 10 days after drawing and most of the platelets and white cells would have disintegrated by that time

Therefore it appeared reasonable to assume that perhaps crude cellular prepara





Part VI

Metabolism of Amino and Nucleic Acids  
in the Leukemias

Chairman

L. J. WITTS

Nuffield Department of Medicine

University of Oxford

Oxford England



## Some Aspects of Amino Acid Metabolism in Leukemia

HARRY A. WAISMAN

Department of Pediatrics Medical School  
University of Wisconsin Madison Wisconsin

### Introduction

One of the dominant roles in cellular metabolism is held by amino acids and by certain key proteins. Their importance in the formation of nucleoprotein enzymes and other cellular content is well established. Relatively little is known however about amino acid distribution in plasma or in the formed elements of blood and even less data are at hand on the changes that occur in these substances during the course of disease or after therapy.

For several years it has been possible to pursue certain phases of amino acid metabolism in human leukemia and in mouse and rat leukemia. This report will deal mainly with amino acid metabolism in various human leukemias and mouse leukemia. As quantitative methods are refined and as more information is obtained it may be possible to relate the function of some amino acids more directly to specific enzyme action in addition to the more traditional structural role that is usually assigned to those "building blocks" that make up proteins.

### Free Amino Acids in Plasma

For many years it has been an accepted fact that the plasma amino acids remain relatively constant except for transitory increases after the intake of food. Prior to the development of more specific methods for the quantitative determination of individual amino acids, earlier investigators found that amino acid nitrogen was higher in patients with nephritis and leukemia (18). Becher and Herrmann (5) found elevated amino nitrogen values in the leukemic patients they studied. This increase in blood amino nitrogen was related to the elevated basal metabolic rate as first noted by Grafe (11) in 1911 and later commented on by



values than normal children of the same age. The values are statistically significant. Normal adults have the same tyrosine values as normal children and it is of interest that patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia and chronic lymphocytic leukemia as well as cancer have values that are distinctly higher than those in normal individuals (Table III). It is worth noting that despite therapy or temporary remission of the disease the amino acid levels were unchanged. This work confirms

TABLE II  
PLASMA TYROSINE LEVELS IN NORMAL AND LEUKEMIC CHILDREN

Classification	Number of patients	Mg/100 ml plasma		P	
		Mean	S D		
Normal	11	1.13	0.11	—	
Leukemic	11	1.87	0.37	< 0.01	
Treated leukemic	11	1.62	0.23	< 0.01	0.07

TABLE III  
PLASMA TYROSINE LEVELS IN NORMAL AND LEUKEMIC ADULTS

Classification	Number of patients	Mg/100 ml plasma		Range	P
		Mean	S D		
Normal	16	1.10	0.14	0.8-1.3	
Untreated chronic lymphatic	8	1.4	0.26	1.0-1.63	0.0-
Treated chronic lymphatic	15	1.40	0.44	1.0-2.5	< 0.01
Untreated chronic granulocytic	12	1.47	0.40	1.2-1.9	< 0.01
Treated chronic granulocytic	7	1.76	0.67	1.1-3.1	< 0.01

microbiological determinations and further supports the thesis that both phenylalanine and tyrosine interrelated as they are in metabolism are apparently functioning in the same direction in the patient with leukemia.

We had noted earlier (28) that hyperpigmentation of the skin occurred in children receiving the folic acid antagonist aminopterin for long periods of time. The darker colored skin appeared prominently over the ankles, back, and fingers in some white children. Confirmation of the clinical impression of hyperpigmentation was obtained when skin from cases at autopsy demonstrated the presence of melanoblasts (14) in

Murphy *et al* (17) Further work by Riddle and Sturgis (20) and by Krantz and Riddle (12) also demonstrated the elevated basal metabolic rate Baldrige and Barer (2) made the observations that protein catabolism was directly related to the increase in oxygen consumption and therefore responsible for the increased basal metabolic rate No further effort was made to explain this phenomenon and little or no information has been available on the disordered amino acid metabolism that undoubtedly exists in this group of diseases

To define more clearly one aspect of amino acid metabolism free amino acids in the plasma of normal and leukemic patients were determined A micro adaptation of an established microbiological procedure enabled us to use 3 to 5 ml of plasma in order to analyze for twelve of the essential amino acids (27) It was possible to use a total incubating volume of 0.2 ml and to neutralize the acid produced from bacterial growth by means of an electronic titrimeter and concentric glass electrode (7) As will be seen in Table I significantly higher values

TABLE I  
FREE AMINO ACIDS IN PLASMA OF NORMAL INDIVIDUALS AND IN  
PATIENTS WITH LEUKEMIA  
(mg/100 ml plasma)

Amino acid	Normal	Before treatment	Remission
Phenylalanine	0.71 (20)	1.9 (35)	1.93 (18)
Tyrosine*	0.93 (17)	1.50 (35)	1.89 (15)
Isoleucine	0.71 (11)	1.15 (39)	1.07 (18)

Significant differences: methionine, histidine, arginine, tryptophan, leucine, glutamic acid, threonine, lysine, and valine. Figures in parentheses indicate number of cases studied.

were found in the leukemic patients when compared to normal for three of the amino acids—phenylalanine, tyrosine, and isoleucine. This was an intriguing finding and we were stimulated to corroborate these data and to explain the role of these amino acids in the leukemic process.

Recently it has been possible to extend these data and as a further check on the microbiological assays a chemical method for detecting tyrosine in blood was performed according to the method of Udenfriend and Cooper (23). With 1-nitroso-2-naphthol compounds having a terminal phenyl hydroxyl group reacted to give so-called "tyrosyl" values. The "tyrosyl" values were determined in both normal children and normal adults as well as in leukemic patients in these age groups. As will be seen from Table II the children with acute leukemia have higher

no significant differences exist in the adult type of leukemia and in the cancer patient but it is of distinct interest that the arginine values in children with acute leukemia appear to be higher than those in normal children. These findings are in contrast to that obtained by microbiological assay. The import of elevated arginine in plasma of children is not clear. Additional information is now being sought on this amino acid.

#### Excretion of Urinary Amino Acids

A large number of 24 hour urine samples obtained from leukemic patients were analyzed for both creatine and creatinine. This study was undertaken to find out whether the increased metabolic rate described earlier was reflected in the breakdown of protein or in abnormal liver function. If the catabolic processes were sufficiently accelerated one might suspect that the creatinine and creatine values would be appreciably higher than in normal individuals. Since it has already been shown that in children at least the arginine blood levels were elevated it might be speculated that this creatinine precursor could have been the basis for the increased values. An unknown factor in this particular experiment however was the degree of liver involvement by the leukemic process and the ability of this organ to metabolize creatinine may have influenced the results.

In a previous paper (27) the difficulties involved in these determinations were described and the variable results were commented on. It had been shown by Dinning and Seager (8) that the creatinuria which was observed in leukemic mice could be directly correlated with the increase in the white blood cells.

In view of the elevated plasma tyrosine levels it was of interest to determine the excretion of urinary tyrosine. Twenty four hour urine samples were collected on a group of patients with leukemia prior to therapy and after the administration of folic acid antagonists. Urine was preserved with toluol and brought to the laboratory after the completion of the 24 hour sample. From experience we had found that urinary collection on a pediatric metabolic ward can best be done by having periods divided according to the nurses working day and accordingly three equal 8 hour periods were pooled in order to facilitate accuracy of sample collection. The analytical method of Medes (15) was used and the tyrosyl values represent many of the metabolic products of tyrosine. As was shown in a previous publication (27) the elevated plasma tyrosine values are not reflected in any increase in urinary tyrosyl. No further information is available and it is obvious that

the dermis. The presence of DOPA oxidase could also be demonstrated in skin by appropriate staining techniques (6). This finding could supposedly be related to the increased amount of circulating phenylalanine but this appears to be a dubious explanation for increased melanogenesis. However, support for the apparent relationship between both tyrosine and phenylalanine and folic acid metabolism has been demonstrated by a number of workers (10, 16, 31). There is no question but that folic acid metabolism is abnormal in leukemia and is concerned with nucleic acid formation. The skin hyperpigmentation in leukemic patients treated with a folic acid antagonist is not completely explained despite much work done on the enzymatic oxidation of tyrosine and its oxidation products in the formation of melanin.

At the present time, although hyperpigmentation and elevated phenylalanine and tyrosine levels occur in the same patient, no direct proof is available that melanogenesis increases because of alteration in the tyrosine metabolic pathway. The relationship is very suggestive, however, and further work on this point seems necessary.

In Tables IV and V the arginine values in children and adults are listed. The method used was that of Gilboe and Williams (personal communication). It will be seen from an examination of the data that

TABLE IV  
ARGININE IN PLASMA IN NORMAL AND LEUKEMIC CHILDREN

Classification	Number of patients	Arginine $\mu\text{g/ml}$ plasma	S.D.	P
Normal	7	12.6	4.2	—
Leukemic	9	16.0	3.4	0.05

TABLE V  
ARGININE IN PLASMA OF NORMAL, LEUKEMIC AND CANCEROUS ADULTS

Classification	Number of patients	Arginine $\mu\text{g/ml}$ plasma	S.D.	P
Normal	7	15.0	2.8	—
Chronic granulocytic leukemia	19	15.7	3.4	> 0.5
Chronic lymphatic leukemia	10	18.5	2.7	> 0.5
Subacute leukemia	3	18.3	—	> 0.5
Cancerous	26	19.4	4.2	> 0.5
Noncancerous nonleukemic	10	17.6	6.0	> 0.5



no significant differences exist in the adult type of leukemia and in the cancer patient but it is of distinct interest that the arginine values in children with acute leukemia appear to be higher than those in normal children. These findings are in contrast to that obtained by microbiological assay. The import of elevated arginine in plasma of children is not clear. Additional information is now being sought on this amino acid.

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additional data are needed to define the metabolic activity of this amino acid

A recent preliminary study by Lo Bianco and Sala (13) reported on amino aciduria in nine leukemic patients. Using a combination of the chromatographic method for urinary amino acids, a method for  $\alpha$ -NH nitrogen in the blood, and the Kjeldahl method for total N in the urine, they found that the  $\alpha$ -amino N of the blood from some leukemic children was indeed higher, and that the urinary excretion of some amino acids was increased when compared to values from normal children of the same age. As far as could be determined from Lo Bianco and Sala's work, it is likely that those amino acids that are elevated in the blood also appear in the urine. Certainly tubular reabsorption phenomena and liver function play a part in these findings. These workers found that therapy had no influence on either the blood or urinary findings. No differences were observed in the leukemic patients whether they were in the acute or in the remission phase of the disease. This confirms our microbiological data which showed (27) that remission of the disease did not alter the level of free amino acids in the plasma.

#### Glutamic Acid Dehydrogenase

The knowledge concerning metabolic changes that take place in white blood cells from normal and leukemic subjects has been summarized in several reviews (4, 9, 24, 25) but only meager information is available on those enzymes concerned with amino acid metabolism. As part of a comprehensive study on these enzymes, initial efforts were directed to the determination of glutamic acid dehydrogenase and glutamic oxalacetic acid transaminase, two of the enzymes concerned with glutamic acid metabolism.

These enzymes seemed appropriate to study since it was shown by Beaton *et al.* (3) and by White *et al.* (29) that plasma levels of free glutamic acid were increased in human subjects with malignant growths and that chick embryos with carcinoma implanted into their yolk sacs showed an increased content of glutamic acid (30). White blood cells were separated from heparinized blood after rouleaux formation had been induced in red cells by the use of 0.8% dextran. The majority of the white cells were recovered in the supernatant plasma. Despite the best separations, some red cells contaminated the white cell preparation but fortunately red blood cells do not contain either enzyme and so the enzyme values reflect only white blood cell activity.

Glutamic acid dehydrogenase was determined by a manometric technique to suit the conditions under study (26). Table VI lists in brief

form the glutamic acid dehydrogenase activity in white blood cells. Despite the variation in white count found in these groups of patients the dehydrogenase value for any individual patient was constant. The mean activity expressed as change in optical density  $\times 10^3/2 \times 10^7$  white blood cells in 30 minutes was four times as high as in normal controls or in a group on noncancer hospital cases. It should be stressed that the enzyme activity within each group of patients varied considerably and no adequate explanation for this variation can now be offered. It was of distinct interest that the glutamic acid dehydrogenase value in white blood cells was not affected by therapy. Typical values before and after treatment are presented in Table VII.

TABLE VI  
GLUTAMIC ACID DEHYDROGENASE ACTIVITY IN WHITE BLOOD CELLS

Classification	Number of cases	WBC count, $\times 10^3$	Mean activity	Range	S.D.
Acute leukemic	9	14-15	63†	37-137	34
Chronic lymphatic leukemic	10	3.2-377	62†	0-188	54
Chronic granulocytic leukemic	14	6.9-500	61†	0-183	53
Cancerous Nonleukemic	28		64†	0-180	39
hospital patients	16		14.6	0-61	17
Normal	14		17.0	0-50	15

Change in optical density  $\times 10^3/2 \times 10^7/30$  min

† Highly significant  $P = < 0.01$

TABLE VII  
EFFECT OF THERAPY ON WHITE BLOOD CELL GLUTAMIC ACID DEHYDROGENASE ACTIVITY IN LEUKEMIA

Diagnosis	Treatment	Days of treatment	$\Delta OD_{30}$	
			Before	After
Acute	Frequent transfusions	7	50 (18)	7 (10)
Chronic granulocytic	X-ray	4	64 (218)	44 (154)
Chronic granulocytic	Myleran†	4	40 (5)	36 (28)
Chronic granulocytic	X-ray	13	93 (241)	94 (410)
Chronic granulocytic	OPSPA† and transfusions	23	12 (59)	0 (73)

Values in parentheses are WBC counts

† 1,4-Dimethanesulfonyloxybutane

† Oxapentamethylenediethylenethiophosphoramidate

additional data are needed to define the metabolic activity of this amino acid

A recent preliminary study by Lo Bianco and Sala (13) reported on amino aciduria in nine leukemic patients. Using a combination of the chromatographic method for urinary amino acids, a method for  $\alpha$  NH nitrogen in the blood, and the Kjeldahl method for total N in the urine, they found that the  $\alpha$  amino N of the blood from some leukemic children was indeed higher, and that the urinary excretion of some amino acids was increased when compared to values from normal children of the same age. As far as could be determined from Lo Bianco and Sala's work, it is likely that those amino acids that are elevated in the blood also appear in the urine. Certainly tubular reabsorption phenomena and liver function play a part in these findings. These workers found that therapy had no influence on either the blood or urinary findings. No differences were observed in the leukemic patients whether they were in the acute or in the remission phase of the disease. This confirms our microbiological data which showed (27) that remission of the disease did not alter the level of free amino acids in the plasma.

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more complete data fail to substantiate this claim. Chemotherapy or x irradiation had no effect on the white blood cells transaminase values (Table X) or on plasma transaminase values (Table XI)

TABLE VIII  
GLUTAMIC OXALACETIC ACID TRANSAMINASE ACTIVITY OF WHITE BLOOD CELLS

Classification	Number of cases	Range of WBC $\times 10^3$	Mean transaminase activity $\mu$ l CO <sub>2</sub>	S D	P
Acute leukemic	10	14-150	58	27	> 0.9
Chronic lymphatic leukemic	7	59-377	84	30	> 0.9
Chronic granulocytic leukemic	12	18-241	63	25	> 0.9
Nonleukemic noncancerous	17	7-17	50	41	> 0.9
Normal	5	5-7	72	26	> 0.9

Microliters CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent to oxalacetate transaminated per  $2 \times 10^7$  WBC per hour

TABLE IX  
GLUTAMIC OXALACETIC ACID TRANSAMINASE IN PLASMA OF PATIENTS WITH LEUKEMIA AND CANCER

Classification	Number of patients	Mean transaminase activity $\mu$ l CO <sub>2</sub>	S D
Leukemic	34	22	27
Cancerous	29	13	11
Nonleukemic noncancerous	24	12	16
Normal	7	12	16

Microliters CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent to oxalacetate transaminated per 0.2 ml of plasma per hour

Note: P value for comparison of leukemic or cancerous with nonleukemic noncancerous was > 0.05

### Role of Ethionine in Transplantable Mouse Leukemia

It seems conceivable that if an essential amino acid is not available for synthesis of a protein to be used as a specific enzyme the particular enzyme may not be formed. If this enzyme is necessary for the elaboration of nucleic acids it may be postulated that in the presence of an amino acid antagonist these vital nuclear substances will not be formed. Whether this circumstance occurs in the intact animal is only speculation.

Figure 1 presents a detailed study of white blood cell glutamic acid dehydrogenase and the white cell count in a two year old child with chronic granulocytic leukemia given a variety of antileukemic drugs. The enzyme activity was unaffected by a variety of agents but after OPSPA therapy<sup>1</sup> the enzyme value fell. A month later just prior to death the enzyme value rose to a maximum. Examination of these data also demonstrate that the peripheral white count had little effect on this enzyme since the enzyme activity was high when the white cell count was low. Just before death the enzyme value was low despite the high white blood cell count.

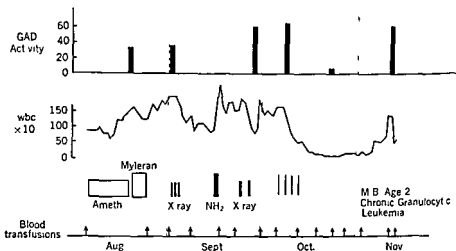


FIG 1 Effect of therapy on glutamic acid dehydrogenase

### Glutamic Oxalacetic Transaminase

This enzyme was determined manometrically by the procedure of Ames and Elvehjem (1) with pyridoxal phosphate added as recommended by O'kane and Gonsalus (19)

The glutamic oxalacetic transaminase values in white blood cells (Table VIII) and in plasma (Table IX) are presented. In 29 cases of the several types of leukemia the mean transaminase value was about equal to that in normal or in nonleukemic hospital patients. Although early data suggested that the transaminase in white blood cells from patients with chronic lymphatic leukemia was higher than in controls

<sup>1</sup> The OPSPA was kindly provided by Dr C Heidelberg

labeled methionine or glycine into rat proteins and they suggested that ethionine could prevent conversion of methionine to cystine. At about the same time Stekol *et al.* (22) used ethyl labeled ethionine and demonstrated that this ethyl group was found in the trimethylamino portion of choline. This indicated that the ethyl group of ethionine was replacing methyl groups in the trimethylamino process. With this evidence that ethionine probably interferes with methionine utilization we used ethionine with several strains of mouse leukemia. The antagonist was either fed or injected and in all experiments the leukemic spleen cells were transplanted by the intraperitoneal route. Since the antagonists cause distinct weight loss it was necessary to resolve the question whether inanition might play a role in inhibiting the transplants.

Experiments showed that simple caloric restriction per se did not interfere with the incidence of leukemia. Series 18 and 19 shown in Table VII demonstrate that limiting the food intake to 1.25 g per day

TABLE VII  
FB MICE (SERIES 18 AND 19)

Group	Number of leukemic deaths	
	Adult	Young
Rockland diet + 9.6 leukemia	7/9 (77%)	6/10 (60%)
Rockland (restrict d to 1.25 g/day) + 9.6 leukemia	11/19 (73%)	9/13 (69%)
Rockland + 0.75% DL-ethionine + 9.6 leukemia	7/12 (58%)	4/9 (44%)

(one fourth to one third the normal intake) did not reduce the incidence of the leukemia in two separate experiments using both young and old FB mice. The younger mice showed a greater reduction in leukemia than did the older mice of the FB strain. It having thus been shown that caloric restriction did not interfere with the incidence of leukemia it was possible to set up experiments that could test the influence of ethionine on mouse leukemia. The addition of ethionine to the diet was able to decrease the incidence of death from leukemia in this strain as shown in Table XII.

Further experiments were able to test a number of factors that were related to the time of ethionine administration. Table XIII shows that giving the ethionine for 3 days prior to the leukemic transplant made no difference in the "take" of the transplant. When the leukemia was trans-

<sup>2</sup> These mice were obtained from random breeding of FB male mice with any F<sub>1</sub> hybrid female.

Experiments were devised to test whether the amino acid antagonists could be effective in delaying the onset of or the inhibition of transplantable leukemia in selected strains of mice. Although the number of

TABLE X  
EFFECT OF THERAPY ON WHITE BLOOD CELL GLUTAMIC OXALACETIC TRANSAMINASE ACTIVITY IN LEUKEMIA

Diagnosis	Treatment	Interval	Mean transaminase activity $\mu\text{l CO}_2$	
			After	Before
Acute	6 MP†	4 months	84	85
Acute	Amethopterin	32 days	92	104
Chronic granulocytic	Transfusions	3 months	38	45
Chronic granulocytic	X ray	18 days	42	49
Chronic granulocytic	OPSPA‡	25 days	26	0

Microliters  $\text{CO}_2$  equivalent to oxalacetate transaminated per  $2 \times 10^7$  WBC per hour

† 6 Mercaptopurine

‡ Oxapentamethylenediethylenethiophosphoramidate

TABLE XI  
EFFECT OF THERAPY ON PLASMA GLUTAMIC OXALACETIC TRANSAMINASE ACTIVITY IN LEUKEMIA

Diagnosis	Treatment	Days of treatment	Mean transaminase activity $\mu\text{l CO}_2$	
			Before	After
Chronic lymphocytic	TEM†	56	60	40
Chronic granulocytic	Myleran‡	5	61	52
Chronic granulocytic	X ray	27	0	3

Microliters  $\text{CO}_2$  equivalent to oxalacetate transaminated per 0.2 ml of plasma per hour

† Triethylene melamine

‡ 1:4 Dimethanesulfonyloxybutane

amino acid antagonists were limited we first used DL ethionine because more was known about its metabolic activity. At about the time that we began to study the metabolic and nutritional effects of ethionine Simpson *et al.* (21) showed that this antagonist inhibits incorporation of



group than in the ethionine groups. The data in Table XV show the delayed incidence of death in the mice receiving ethionine.

These data imply that ethionine actually interferes with the formation of protein essential to the leukemic cell. This is accomplished probably by incorporation of the ethionine into the protein molecule as shown by Stekol *et al.* (22) or by the effect of ethionine on protein synthesis by inhibiting the incorporation of methionine and glycine into

TABLE XV  
FB STRONG A (SERIES 35)

	Day of mouse death after transplant						
	9	11	13	14	15	16	17
Rockland + 926 leukemia	2/10		3/10	7/10			
Rockland + 20 mg DL-ethionine + 926 leukemia	1/9				3/9	5/9	8/9

liver protein (21). The question remains: Is the methionine important structurally for synthesis of a vital enzyme necessary for cell proliferation or does the antagonist actually prevent the dysplastic process at a stage where incorporation of essential nuclear protein is vital? At the present time these speculations must serve as the basis for future experimentation.

### Summary

The data presented here support the conclusion that amino acids undoubtedly play a part in the pathophysiology of the leukemias. At the moment the elevated tyrosine level in the blood of leukemic patients holds the greatest interest. From our study of urinary amino acid excretion we feel that the elevated tyrosine level that occurs in plasma may not be reflected in the tyrosine excreted in the urine. Further work is needed to elucidate the role of this amino acid in the dysplastic process.

Enzymes concerned with amino acid anabolism or catabolism in the white blood cells appear to have significance since there is apparently no question that glutamic acid dehydrogenase metabolism is abnormal in the white cells of patients with leukemia. Additional work on other white cell enzymes is now in progress. The use of amino acid antagonists in either human or mouse leukemia seems a profitable way to study some of the aberrations that occur in this disease process. In transplantable mouse leukemia we have been able to show that by means of its dietary effect ethionine can inhibit the onset of leukemia in certain strains of mice. Adequate controls demonstrate that caloric restriction per se does not interfere with the incidence of leukemia.

planted 3 days prior to the first ethionine administration again no significant differences were observed. The administration of ethionine intraperitoneally every other day was also not impressive. The greatest reduction in the number of mice showing positive leukemia was found in groups 4 and 8 both of which received optimum ethionine either concurrently with or for 4 to 6 weeks prior to the leukemic transplant. It

TABLE XIII  
NUMBER OF FB ADULT MICE SHOWING POSITIVE LEUKEMIA (SERIES 24)

1	Rockland + 926 leukemia	12/15
2	Restricted Rockland + 926 leukemia	10/15
3	Rockland + 20 mg ethionine i.p. + 926 leukemia 72 hours later	9/9
4	Rockland + 20 mg ethionine + leukemia	11/19
5	Rockland + 0.75% DL ethionine + 926 leukemia	11/15
6	Rockland + 926 leukemia + 20 mg DL-ethionine i.p. started 72 hours later	11/15
7	Rockland + 20 mg ethionine every other day	11/15
8	Rockland + 20 mg ethionine i.p. for 4 to 6 weeks prior to 926 leukemia	11/20

is difficult to define the role of the antagonist but from many experiments using FB randomly bred mice it is possible to conclude that ethionine appears to decrease the incidence of leukemia to some degree in several strains of mice. With  $F_1$  hybrids of the FB strain or with AK or FB Strong A mice the results appear to be more definitive since ethionine represses the leukemia more consistently. In Table XIV

TABLE XIV  
NUMBER OF MICE WITH POSITIVE LEUKEMIA (SERIES 34)

Rockland plus AK leukemia	17/17
Rockland plus 12 mg DL ethionine plus AK leukemia	4/11

animals from the AK strain had less leukemia in ethionine injected groups than the controls. The results in this series were again checked by gross and by microscopic examination and the leukemia identified morphologically.

Another group of data on the delaying action of ethionine was demonstrated in FB Strong A hybrids. Although the data at the end of the experiment showed nearly identical incidence of leukemia the enlarged spleens were easily palpated at least 6 days earlier in the non ethionine

## Urinary Amino Acid Excretion in Leukemia

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## Introduction and Methods

Urine contains in addition to the well known substances a large number of substances present in smaller quantities. It is not unusual to find a product or products of catabolism that are present only in the urine of patients with a certain disease. This work was started in the hope that some clues could be found in the urine of leukemic patients if an exhaustive analysis could be carried out. For this purpose paper chromatography is an ideal method because one can detect simultaneously a large number of substances. The method permits the investigator to explore new areas. For example it is not uncommon to find a new compound in some biological fluid or tissue. This leads almost invariably to the discovery of new reactions, new enzymes and new concepts in metabolic pathways. When the method of paper chromatography was adapted for the study of urine technical difficulties were encountered at once. As a point of departure in this study we decided to measure the free amino acids and other related substances (taurine, glutamine, glutathione, etc.) which are detected by the same procedure. In order to do this it was necessary to remove from the urine substances like urea and inorganic salts which interfere with the method. Moreover to detect as many amino compounds as possible the urine was concentrated fivefold prior to chromatographic analysis. The details for the preparation of urine specimens prior to chromatography have been published (1). Briefly the method consists in removing pigments and large molecules by treatment of the urine with activated charcoal in the presence of some chloroform. The charcoal treated urine is then desalted by means of ion exchange resins. A solvent system suitable

### Acknowledgments

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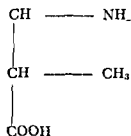
### Effect of Nitrogen Mustards on the Excretion of $\beta$ Aminoisobutyric Acid

Inasmuch as little knowledge was gained by simply surveying urine specimens from leukemic patients we decided to seek new information by a different method. If  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid is a product of pyrimidine catabolism we could readily infer that its presence in the urine could reflect nucleic acid breakdown. To obtain more facts in support of this hypothesis we proceeded to study selected patients who were candidates for nitrogen mustard therapy. Nitrogen mustard is known to cause tissue lysis and also has the advantage that is given in a single dose. Patients with lymphosarcoma, chronic lymphocytic leukemia, and Hodgkin's disease were chosen for this study. All the patients were hospitalized at the University of Texas M. D. Anderson Hospital and Tumor Institute, and no change in the plan of treatment was made. Urines were collected (24 hour collection) for several days before nitrogen mustard was given and for several days after the administration of the drug. The period of study varied depending on the condition of the patient. Most patients were very cooperative in this study. The analyses of the urines were made by the methods described. In addition to the quantitative estimation of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid, other amino acids were measured: taurine, glycine, serine, and alanine. Results are shown only for  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. It is clear from the charts that nitrogen mustard (HN2) has a profound effect on the excretion of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. The effect is of short duration and the intensity varies from patient to patient. We tried to correlate the amount of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid excreted with total leukocyte count, but there was no discernible correlation. Patient E.M. (Fig. 1), a female 55 years of age who had lymphosarcoma, received 50 mg. of HN2. This patient was excreting around 500 micromoles of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid per 24 hours prior to the administration of the mustard and her total leukocyte count was 5600. After mustard treatment her count was 3000. Notice, however, that after the administration of the drug her  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid excretion rose to 2257 micromoles. That the rise is out of proportion to the drop in total leukocytes can be better appreciated by comparing this patient with one who had a high total leukocyte count. The patient M.C. (Fig. 2), a female 58 years old, had chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Her total leukocyte count prior to treatment was 33,600. Her urine was analyzed for 4 days prior to treatment and we could not find any  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. After the administration of 30 mg. of HN2 the patient's count dropped to 18,000. 3 days after the administration of HN2 she excreted a maximum amount of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. This maximum was only 780 micromoles.

for urinary amino acids analysis is butanol-formic acid-water (70 15 15) and lutidine-water (60 40). The method is not so accurate as one would desire since there are losses. Fortunately the losses are uniform and the ratio of one component to the other remains about the same.

#### Excretion of Free Amino Acids in Leukemia

A series of urine specimens from children with leukemia were examined at first by the procedure outlined above. The patients were at Sloan Kettering Institute. Dr J Burchenal was so kind as to provide us with all the urine specimens and information for this study. The results which have been reported elsewhere were disappointing except for one finding. The pattern of amino acid excretion did not bear any relation to the type of disease or to the form of treatment. The only rewarding information was that all the patients excreted  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid in varying amounts. This in itself was interesting since  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid is not normally present in detectable amounts.



$\beta$  Aminoisobutyric acid

Crumpler and associates (2) were the first to report the existence of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid in urine. They examined the urine of 459 subjects of both sexes ranging in age from 3 to 50 years. They found that 22 of the subjects (4.8%) excreted  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid in detectable amounts. They gave no quantitative values. At about the same time Fink *et al* (3) reported a similar finding. They studied 140 normal subjects. They found that 88 of the group excreted no detectable amounts, 41 excreted an average of 300 micromoles per liter, 8 excreted 400 micromoles per liter, 1 excreted 2500 micromoles per liter, and 2 excreted 3000 micromoles per liter. It is clear from the results of Crumpler and Fink that the excretion of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid by normal subjects is not a common event. All the specimens which we have examined from leukemic patients had detectable quantities of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. Subsequent work by Fink and associates (4,7) has demonstrated that  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid can arise from pyrimidines.

mustard in the same way as patients with lymphosarcoma (Figs 7 and 8). It is true that the nitrogen mustard brought about an increase in the excretion of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid but the rise was not so impressive as in the patients with lymphosarcoma.

It is difficult to assess the significance of this observation at the moment. Many more facts are necessary to begin to understand the

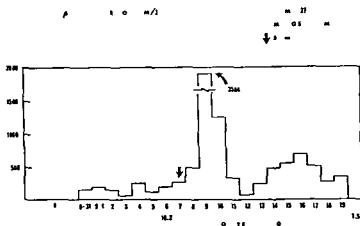


FIG 3

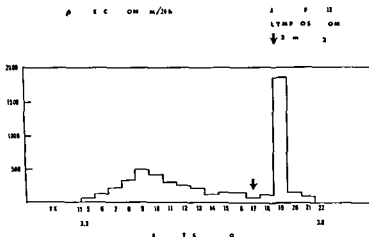


FIG 4

which is considerably less than the 2257 micromoles excreted by our first patient. There seems to be little correlation between total leukocyte count and the excretion of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. It is not improbable that the amount of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid excreted depends on the amount of lymphatic tissue affected by the drug. Two patients with Hodgkins disease in this study did not respond to the nitrogen

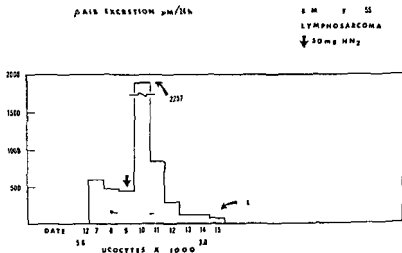


FIG 1

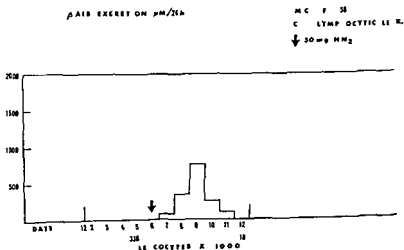


FIG 2



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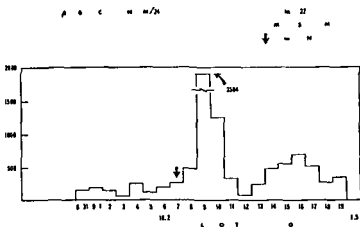


FIG 3

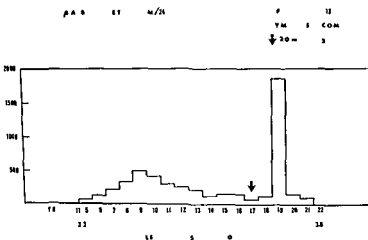


FIG 4

reasons for this phenomenon. More work is under way and we hope that when a sufficient number of patients has been studied an interpretation will be possible. It is indeed fortunate that while this work was underway Fink and associates (37) reported their findings on the origin of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. Their results point to the fact that  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid is formed from a thymine derivative

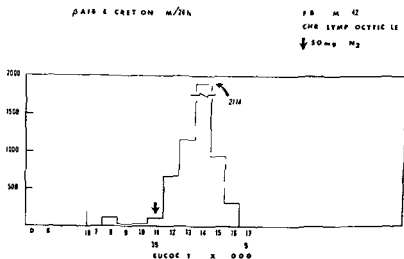


FIG 5

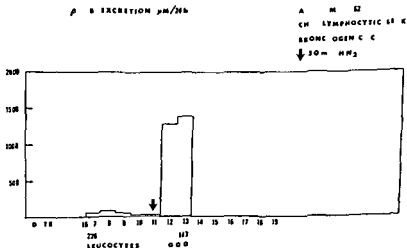


FIG 6

namely dihydrothymine. The existence of dihydrothymine has not been demonstrated but in their experiments they were able to show the conversion of this compound to  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid. If  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid is the end product of thymine catabolism one could explain the rise observed on the basis of increased DNA catabolism. It is known that uric acid also increases in leukemia. Moreover we have determined uric acid excretion in a few of our patients and found a similar pattern in the main it appears that uric acid excretion increases at the same time. Since uric acid is formed from

PAGE 1 M M/24h

AT

0.1M

↓ 50M M



FIG 7

$\beta$  SECTION M/24h

M

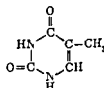
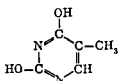
0.0 M S

↓ 1 M 2

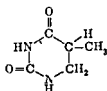


FIG 8

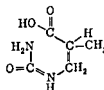
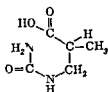
purines and is not catabolized further one finds it in the urine. Thymine could conceivably be oxidized or perhaps converted to  $\beta$  amino isobutyric acid. We do not know to what extent  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid is oxidized in the body. If it is oxidized we are measuring in the



Thymine



Dihydrothymine

Ureido  $\beta$  AIB $\beta$  AIB

urine only a small fraction of the total amount produced. Work is under way to determine the extent of oxidation of  $\beta$  aminoisobutyric acid.

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## Free or Easily Extractable Amino Acids in Blood Cells and Body Fluids

GEORGE ROUSER<sup>1</sup>

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*This is a progress report of studies dealing with the metabolism of the formed elements of blood with particular emphasis on the leukocytes. The broad aim of the project is to outline the metabolic systems of importance in blood cells in various species and the effects on these systems in certain pathological states. This eventually would include the determination of the distribution of various enzyme systems and the concentrations and turnover rates of their substrates and the products of their reactions. The first step in elucidating metabolic balances in living cells involves the determination of the types and amounts of various important cellular constituents. The technique of paper chromatography has been selected for this purpose since it has been found to be an excellent and simple method for giving simultaneous information about a large number of variables. Nitrogen metabolism has been the first area to be considered not only because of the great importance of amino acids and related products to cellular processes but because suitable methods were at hand for such studies.*

It has been shown that the free amino acid content of the plasma is usually much lower than that of the cells (2, 10, 12) and that all cells with the possible exception of erythrocytes (12, 17) can concentrate many amino acids. As with other metabolites the uptake of amino acids by cells may be accompanied by a loss of some substances from the cells e.g. Ehrlich ascites tumor cells lose potassium ions during the uptake of  $\alpha$ ,  $\gamma$  diaminobutyric acid (1). The complex relationship of

<sup>1</sup> Dr. Carson H. Tishkoff collaborated in studies on animal blood cells and Drs. Arthur Samuels and Bohdan Jelneck collaborated in some of the studies of patients with leukemia.

the concentrations of amino acids in blood cells to those in plasma which is in turn influenced by changes in the metabolic status of the organism as a whole makes it highly desirable to study both cells and plasma. From an extensive survey of these relationships in this laboratory it has been concluded that a study of body fluids or cells alone may either fail to yield useful information or may actually give rise to misleading interpretations.

The exact form within cells of the so called free or easily extractable amino acids is not known although if binding occurs it is of a weak type as indicated by the ease of extraction of these compounds by gentle procedures. Ionic attraction van der Waals forces and hydrogen bonding may be involved in binding amino acids to substances of high molecular weight such as proteins or nucleic acids.

The present report describes results of an attempt to correlate the free amino acid pattern with cell morphology in animals and man. Observations also will be reported of an extensive paper chromatographic survey of blood cells and body fluids in patients with various types of leukemia which has focused attention on some specific aspects of amino acid metabolism.

## Methods

Blood and marrow samples were drawn into siliconed heparinized syringes from adult animals and human beings and separation of cells was accomplished by centrifugation. Clean cuts of platelets, white cells and red cells could be obtained by centrifugation at an average radial distance of  $7\frac{1}{4}$  inches by starting at 400 r.p.m. and gradually increasing the speed over a period of 3 to 5 minutes to 1500 r.p.m. which speed was continued for 3 to 7 minutes. Platelets were removed with the overlying plasma and sedimented at 2500 r.p.m. for 5 to 10 minutes. White cells were usually removed as nearly quantitatively as possible along with a considerable quantity of red cells transferred to a smaller bore tube and recentrifuged. This process was repeated until the contamination with red cells was reduced to a level which would not affect the chromatographic results. Different types of leukocytes present in a mixture were frequently separated by the layering technique reviewed by Rouser (23). The method involves recentrifugation of the white cell mixture in a narrow bore tube, aspiration of various layers and microscopic examination after supravital staining. The layers found to have the desired cell type with the smallest content of other types are then examined chromatographically.

All samples were first extracted with 80% ethanol. After evaporation

of the alcohol the dried residues were suspended in a measured quantity of water and dialyzed to equilibrium against water and the dialyzate electrolytically desalted in the case of plasma red cells and urine in order to avoid serious interference with the chromatographic procedures. Samples applied to paper usually were dried with warm air from a hair drier a procedure which was found to oxidize cysteine cystine and cysteinylglycine to the corresponding sulfonic acids but leaving glutathione "unoxidized". This was preferred to peroxide oxidation in samples which were desalted because movement of oxidized glutathione was distorted by sulfates introduced during the desalting procedure. Two dimensional paper chromatography in water saturated phenol and lutidine was performed in the usual manner. A tracing showing the location of the commonly observed ninhydrin reactive constituents is shown in Fig. 1. Photography of chromatograms was standardized so that the size reduction was the same in each case.

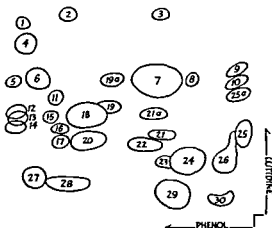


FIG. 1 Map of ninhydrin reactive constituents (1) phenylalanine (2) tyrosine (3) probably tyrosine O sulfate (urine) (4) leucine + isoleucine (5) ethanolamine (6) valine (7) taurine (8) unknown ( $\gamma$  glutamylpeptide?) (9) cysteinylglycine (sulfonic acid) (10) cysteic acid (11)  $\alpha$  amino-n butyric acid (12) 3-methylhistidine (urine) (13) proline (14) 1 methylhistidine (15) histidine (16) unknown (present in erythrocytes) (17) glycylphosphorylethanolamine (18) alanine (19) threonine (common position) (19a) threonine position with some batches of Whatman No 1 paper (20) glutamine (21) serine (common position) (21a) serine position with some batches of Whatman No 1 paper (22) glycine (23) unknown ( $\gamma$  glutamylpeptide?) (24) glutamic acid (25) "oxidized glutathione (H<sub>2</sub>O oxidized) (25a) also oxidized glutathione (26) a partic acid (27) arginine (28) lysine (29) ethanolamine O phosphate and (30) glutathione (no H<sub>2</sub>O)

the concentrations of amino acids in blood cells to those in plasma which is in turn influenced by changes in the metabolic status of the organism as a whole makes it highly desirable to study both cells and plasma. From an extensive survey of these relationships in this laboratory it has been concluded that a study of body fluids or cells alone may either fail to yield useful information or may actually give rise to misleading interpretations.

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All samples were first extracted with 80% ethanol. After evaporation



from patients carefully selected for the presence of the particular cell populations in the peripheral blood. Comparisons for human subjects were made only in those instances in which the plasma and urine free amino acid patterns did not show gross differences. As in the case of normal animals and man the pattern of each cell type was found to be characteristically different. Figures 10 and 11 show the free amino acid patterns obtained from preparations of small and large lymphoblasts respectively of a dog with spontaneous leukemia. The two types of lymphoblasts were separated by the layering technique. The chromatograms are nearly identical. It would therefore appear that size variation in the cells is not correlated with any notable differences in amino acid pattern. Chromatograms of extracts of lymphoblasts from dog (Figs 10 and 11) and from a patient with lymphoblastic leukemia (Fig 12) are readily distinguished. Most characteristic are the differences in ethanolamine O phosphate and alanine. Rodent lymphoblasts can also be distinguished from those of dog and man. Human myeloblasts (Fig 13) possess a pattern that differs clearly from myelocytes (preparation including promyelocytes, myelocytes and metamyelocytes Fig 14). The most characteristic differences are the very low levels of glutamine, glutathione and cysteine (cystine) in the myeloblasts. Myelocytes (Fig 14) have a grossly different pattern from polymorphonuclear leukocytes (Fig 15) the latter cells containing very low levels of glutamine and ethanolamine O phosphate. The myelocytes were the only cells in the above series containing relatively high concentrations of glutamine.

It has been observed that there is greater variation in the free amino acid patterns among cells of the myeloid series than those of the lymphoid series. Small, medium and large lymphocytes have very similar patterns particularly when the nuclear-cytoplasmic ratio is approximately the same. There are smaller differences between lymphocytes (Figs 19, 27, 30, 33) and lymphoblasts (Fig 12) than between myeloblasts (Fig 13) and polymorphonuclear leukocytes (Figs 15 and 16).

3 *Amino Acid Patterns in the Same Cell Type Obtained from Normal Human Subjects and from Patients with Leukemia or Malignant Disease.* The question frequently arises whether the circulating leukocytes in leukemic patients have an abnormal metabolic pattern. Since it has been shown that each cell type has a characteristic free amino acid pattern only morphologically similar cells can be compared. Because of the complex interrelationship between plasma and intracellular free amino acids it is necessary to compare the cells at a time when the plasma levels of the various free amino acids are as nearly identical as possible. Figures 16 to 18 show the best comparisons we have obtained

## Results

*1 Characteristic Pattern of Free or Easily Extractable Amino Acids Found in Each Type of Formed Elements of the Blood of a Particular Species* Figures 2 to 5 show chromatograms prepared from extracts of suitable quantities of various types of rabbit cells. The free amino acid level in lymphocytes obtained from lymph node (Fig 2) is higher than that of the pseudoeosinophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes obtained from peritoneal exudates (Fig 4). One difference between the two types of cells in all species studied is the higher concentration of ethanolamine O phosphoric acid in lymphocytes. Large mononuclear phagocytes (macrophages) obtained from peritoneal exudates (Fig 3) contain various essential amino acids such as the leucines valine threonine and lysine that are low or undetectable in lymphocytes or the cells of the myeloid series. The content of histidine is relatively high also. Blood platelets (Fig 5) also show a characteristic pattern of amino acids.

Figures 6 to 9 show some patterns obtained from the dog and normal man. A preparation composed largely of human neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes (Fig 6) can be compared with one from dog neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes (Fig 8). A marked overall similarity can be observed. The apparent species variations indicated by differences in the concentrations of glutamine glutathione cysteine acid and cysteinylglycine are within the range seen from one preparation to another in man. Another preparation (Fig 18) of human granulocytes is almost indistinguishable from that of the dog granulocytes. Human blood platelets (Fig 7) in turn have a characteristic pattern readily distinguishable from the other blood elements. The free amino acid pool is much lower in the red cells (Fig 9) than in other formed elements of blood. Figure 9 was prepared using an extract corresponding to ten times the packed cell volume used for leukocytes and platelets. The red cell pattern has been observed to reflect rather closely the free amino acid composition of the plasma both qualitatively and quantitatively. Red cell aspartic and glutamic acid content is always higher than plasma however and red cells contain considerable quantities of glutathione a substance not detectable in plasma by these procedures.

The above results are in keeping with the findings of Roberts and Frankel (21) that in a particular animal species each tissue of the adult organism has a characteristic pattern of free or easily extractable nitrogen hydrin reactive constituents.

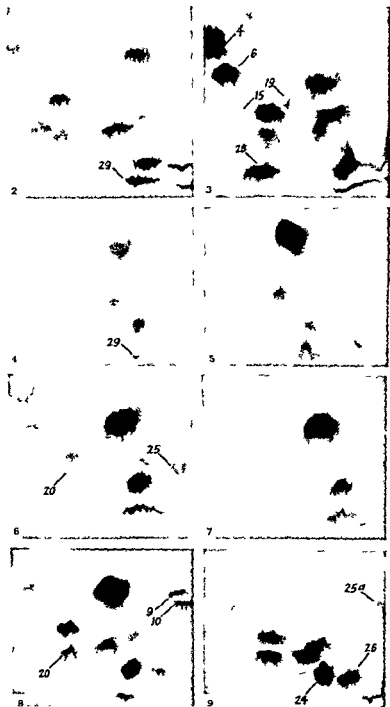
*2 Amino Acid Patterns of Leukocytes of Animals and Patients with Leukemia* Cell preparations were obtained from leukemic animals and

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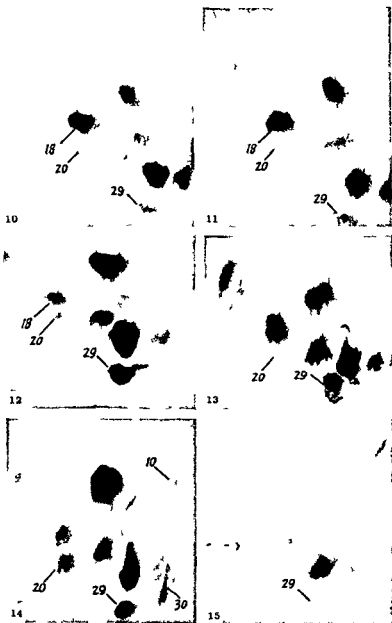
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FIGS 2-9 Comparison of free amino acid patterns of some cells of normal rabbit, dog, and man. Extracts were chromatographed corresponding to the following quantities of cells: (2) 35 mg rabbit lymphocytes (lymph node); (3) 70 mg rabbit large mononuclear phagocytes (monocytes from peritoneal exudates); (4) 35 mg rabbit pseudoeosinophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes (peritoneal exudates); (5) 70 mg rabbit blood platelets; (6) 40 mg human neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes; (7) 40 mg human blood platelets; (8) 75 mg dog neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes; and (9) 1 ml packed human red blood cells.



FIGS 2-9 Comparison of free amino acid patterns of some cells of normal rabbit, dog, and man. Extracts were chromatographed corresponding to the following quantities of cells: (2) 35 mg rabbit lymphocytes (lymph node); (3) 70 mg rabbit large mononuclear phagocytes (monocytes from peritoneal exudates); (4) 30 mg rabbit pseudoeosinophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes (peritoneal exudates); (5) 70 mg rabbit blood platelets; (6) 40 mg human neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes; (7) 40 mg human blood platelets; (8) 75 mg dog neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes; and (9) 1 ml packed human red blood cells.



FIGS 10-15 Comparison of free amino acid patterns of some cells from dog and human leukemias. Extracts corresponding to the following quantities of cells were employed: (10) 100 mg dog small lymphoblasts; (11) 100 mg dog large lymphoblasts; (12) 100 mg human lymphoblasts; (13) 100 mg human myeloblasts; (14) 100 mg mixed myelocytes (promyelocytes, metamyelocytes and myelocytes); (15) 100 mg neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes.



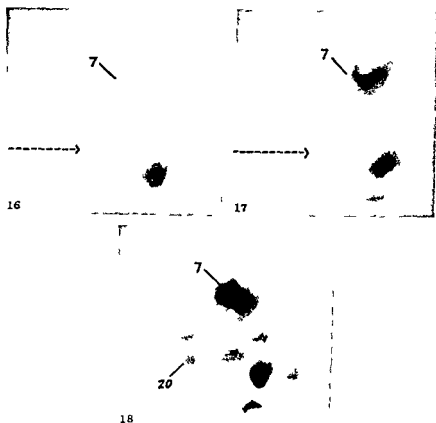
grams of the extracts shown in Figs 16 and 17. It cannot be stated at present that the differences observed are a consequence of metabolic alterations in the cells examined. On the other hand the difference may be a consequence of alterations of taurine and glutamine levels in the plasma since it has been found generally that greater amounts of these substances are found in leukocytes when the concentrations in plasma and urine are higher. This was actually the case in the patients whose cells were examined above.

4 *Glutamine and Glutathione Metabolism in the Leukemias* Abnormally low glutamine content has been observed in the plasma of a patient with chronic granulocytic leukemia containing primarily polymorphonuclear leukocytes in the peripheral blood but not in patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia who had large numbers of immature cells in the circulation. A tendency toward a lowered plasma glutamine level was observed in acute myeloblastic and lymphoblastic and chronic lymphocytic leukemias and in the body fluids of patients with carcinoma of the breast, Hodgkins disease, lymphosarcoma and reticulum cell sarcoma.

Free amino acid patterns illustrating the virtual absence of glutamine in a patient with chronic lymphocytic leukemia are shown for the small lymphocyte (Fig 19), red cells (Fig 20), plasma (Fig 21) and urine (Fig 22) respectively. In addition to the decrease in glutamine increases in glutamic and aspartic acids and in alanine have been noted in some of the cases. For comparison chromatograms of normal plasma and urine are shown in Figs 23 and 24. When untreated patients were studied at various intervals occasionally normal plasma and urine patterns were obtained; at other times large deviations from the normal picture could be observed. Plasma glutamine has been found to return toward normal levels in some fasted patients after treatment with TEM or nitrogen mustard.

Cysteinylglycine detectable on chromatograms probably as the sulfonic acid diketopiperazine was observed frequently in small amounts in lymphocytes and in larger quantities in granulocytes and platelets. Chromatograms regularly showed that the quantity of glutathione varied inversely with the content of cysteine (cystine) and cysteinylglycine. Two new compounds tentatively identified as  $\gamma$ -glutamylglutamine and  $\gamma$ -glutamylcysteine were found occasionally in platelets. The presence of these compounds was also associated with a low level of glutathione. Although some of the variability noted in the content of the various sulfur compounds was probably attributable to the unavoidable delay in preparing some samples, there appears to be some variation in the

to date Figure 16 was prepared from an extract obtained from a patient with granulocytic leukemia having almost exclusively neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes in the blood. The chromatogram in Fig 17 was obtained from an extract of morphologically similar cells separated



FIGS 16-18 Comparison of amino acid patterns of neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes of human subjects (16) granulocytic leukemia (17) reticulum cell sarcoma and (18) normal. Extracts equivalent to 100 mg of material were employed in each case.

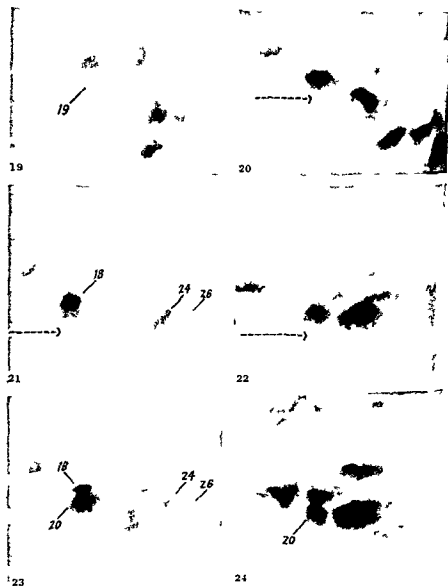
by the layering technique from the peripheral blood of a patient with reticulum cell sarcoma. The pattern shown in Fig 18 is from a preparation of neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes from a normal individual. The preparation from the normal individual (Fig 18) showed considerably larger quantities of taurine than the other two samples and the presence of glutamine which was not detected on the chromato-

creas was also present in the formed elements of the blood and more detailed studies were carried out to check this possibility

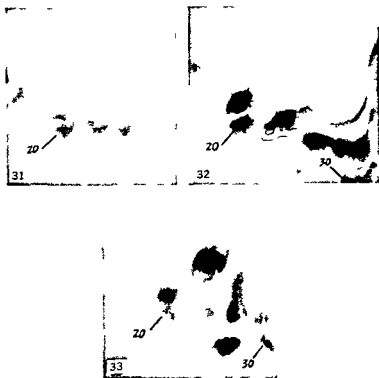
A patient with chronic lymphocytic leukemia with a cell count of  $100\,000/\text{mm}^3$  and a differential count of 95% small lymphocytes was injected with 15 mg/kg of L(+) glutamine via the femoral artery and blood samples were withdrawn from the same site at 5 15 35 60 90 and 120 minutes. Figures 25 to 33 show the findings in the plasma, red cells and white cells before the injection and at 5 minutes and 60 minutes thereafter. After injection the plasma glutamine level (Fig 28) was elevated above the initial level (Fig 25) to only a relatively small extent and at 120 minutes it had decreased to approximately its original level. Elevation of red cell glutamine was noted during the experiment but the most marked change was the almost complete disappearance of glutathione followed by a gradual return to the control level in one hour (Figs 26 29 32). A trace of cystine was visible on the chromatogram of the 5 minute red cell sample (Fig 29) but this compound was not visible on the other chromatograms. Little change took place in the amino acids of the leukocytes with possibly only a small decrease in the content of some of the constituents being found in the 5 minute sample (Fig 30).

The above findings have been confirmed and extended in *in vitro* experiments. The latter studies have indicated that erythrocytes either do not degrade glutamine to glutamic acid and ammonia or do so only at a slow rate. Both *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies showed that when the content of plasma glutamine is increased the quantity of glutathione is first depressed and then returns to normal levels without any notable change in glutamine concentration taking place. This suggests that synthesis of glutathione by the red cell, which has recently been observed by other investigators (4 5 19) is accelerated by elevation of glutamine in plasma. The major metabolic pathway for glutamine in the lymphocyte as judged from *in vitro* studies would appear to be the conversion to glutamic acid and ammonia with the subsequent formation of other amino acids from glutamic acid, probably by transamination. It has been possible to observe reduction of glutathione content of lymphocytes incubated in plasma using a starting glutamine concentration of  $5 \times 10^{-3} M$ . Glutathione was reduced to undetectable levels followed by a return toward normal during the course of the incubation. From the above observations it would appear that the transpeptidation system in which glutamine participates in the degradation of glutathione is operative in the formed elements of the blood.

cellular content of these compounds at the time the blood is drawn. These findings led us to believe that the glutamine glutathione transpeptidation system described by Hanes *et al* (13) in kidney and pan



FIGS 19-24 Amino acid patterns in chronic lymphocytic leukemia from (19) 100 mg small lymphocytes (20) 0.5 ml packed red cells (21) 0.5 ml plasma and (22) 0.5 ml urine as compared to (23) normal plasma (0.5 ml) and (24) normal urine (1.0 ml)



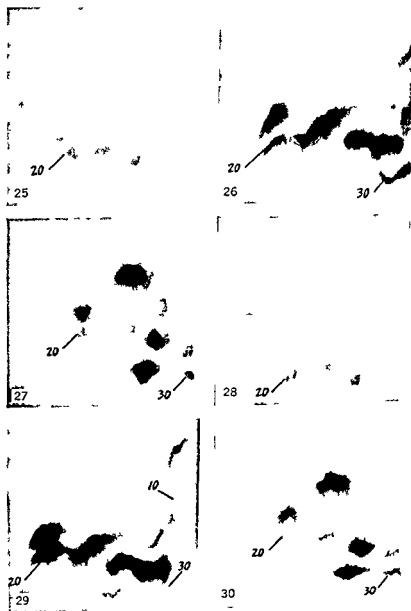
FIGS 25-33 Blood free amino acid changes after intraarterial glutamine injection (chronic lymphocytic leukemia) control samples (25-27) of plasma, red cells and small lymphocytes (28-30) plasma red cells and lymphocytes 5 minutes after injection (31-33) plasma, red cells and lymphocytes 60 minutes after injection. Extracts equivalent to 0.25 ml. plasma 1.0 ml. packed red cells and 100 mg lymphocytes used in each case

served as a result of alteration of extracellular concentrations of one or more of the amino acids. When it is realized that these effects may also be dependent on nutritional, hormonal, and other physiological factors the complexity of the situation becomes apparent and the danger of generalizing from a limited amount of data obtained under restricted conditions is emphasized. For these reasons the paper chromatographic technique is especially valuable for survey studies allowing a large number of samples to be examined for a variety of constituents in a relatively short period of time.

These studies focus attention on the fact that in a high-count leukemia the metabolic activity of a large mass of blood cells may affect the amino

## Discussion

The above observations serve to indicate a type of relationship which may exist between the amino acids of plasma and those of the formed elements of blood. The results with glutamine show only one of probably many effects on metabolic reactions in the cells which may be ob



changes in free amino acids and glutathione may influence the production of red cells or their life span the finding of glutathione transpeptidase activity in the red cells may possibly explain certain findings which have been reported dealing with glutathione content of erythrocytes. A number of amino acids can react with glutathione in the transpeptidase system and some e.g. methionine are even more active than glutamine (8, 16). It is evident that glutathione content of erythrocytes may vary with changes in plasma amino acid levels. Glutathione concentration in erythrocytes has been observed to be increased in hyperthyroidism after ACTH administration during protein starvation and in severe liver disease (15). This may be a result of the increased free amino acid levels in plasma observed in these conditions (6, 7, 9, 14, 24). Glutathione content is much higher in erythrocytes when rats are fed a diet deficient in methionine (11, 18). This may be related to the fact that such diets generally result in a lowered level of free amino acids in plasma (3, 26).

### Summary

1. Investigation has been made of free or easily extractable amino acids in plasma, platelets, leukocytes, erythrocytes and urine in normal animals and man and in adult leukemic patients.

2. Under a given set of circumstances each formed element of the blood appears to have a characteristic free amino acid pattern and differences occur in similar cell types in various species.

3. An interrelationship of both plasma and cellular levels of free amino acids has been found, and it is emphasized that careful comparison of amino acid distribution in cells, plasma and urine is necessary in order properly to evaluate any changes observed.

4. Low levels of glutamine have been observed in the plasma of a number of the leukemic patients studied. Some of the relations of this finding to the glutamine and glutathione content and metabolism of the cellular constituents of blood have been explored.

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acid content of the blood plasma to a considerable extent and thus influence the amino acid metabolism of the organism as a whole in a specific manner depending on the predominating cell type. In order to distinguish those changes attributable to the blood cells and those arising from abnormalities in other body tissues or from induced nutritional abnormalities it is necessary to study an adequate number of patients maintained under carefully controlled conditions. The impression obtained must then be confirmed by employing various metabolites in elevated concentration both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. As a corollary it is imperative to inactivate the enzymes in the blood samples as rapidly as possible prior to analysis since leukocytes can continue to metabolize various substances *in vitro* at a rapid rate. Numerous studies performed in this laboratory have shown that the procedures employed have reduced artifactual changes in amino acid content to a minimum.

The fact that morphologically distinct cell types generally have a characteristic free amino acid pattern and probably metabolize amino acids in different ways and at different rates make it apparent that in order to determine whether a cell type from a patient with leukemia is different from normal comparison with the corresponding normal cell type should always be made where possible. In the instance in which a comparison was made of neutrophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes from patients with granulocytic leukemia and reticulum cell sarcoma and from a normal individual it was felt that differences observed could be explained as well by assuming a metabolic disturbance resulting directly from the disease as by attributing the changes to abnormalities in the cells themselves. Our observations have led us to conclude that the changes in plasma and urine amino acids in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia can be attributed at least to a certain extent to the metabolism of the lymphocytes.

Roberts *et al* (20-22) have demonstrated that free glutamine is low or absent in solid tumors in animals and in both ascites tumor cells and ascitic fluid. These investigators have also demonstrated the rapid utilization of glutamine by ascites tumor cells and its conversion to glutamic acid. White *et al* (25) have shown that glutamic acid may be elevated and glutamine somewhat depressed in the plasma of rats with transplantable tumors. Our observations make it seem probable that in many human leukemias there is also rapid utilization of glutamine and a consequent elevation of glutamic acid. Elevation of plasma alanine and aspartic acid content has also been observed.

The problem of anemia in the leukemias makes important a study of the chemistry of red cells. Although we do not know whether the



changes in free amino acids and glutathione may influence the production of red cells or their life span the finding of glutathione transpeptidase activity in the red cells may possibly explain certain findings which have been reported dealing with glutathione content of erythrocytes. A number of amino acids can react with glutathione in the transpeptidase system and some e.g. methionine are even more active than glutamine (8, 16). It is evident that glutathione content of erythrocytes may vary with changes in plasma amino acid levels. Glutathione concentration in erythrocytes has been observed to be increased in hyperthyroidism after ACTH administration during protein starvation and in severe liver disease (15). This may be a result of the increased free amino acid levels in plasma observed in these conditions (6, 7, 9, 14, 24). Glutathione content is much higher in erythrocytes when rats are fed a diet deficient in methionine (11, 18). This may be related to the fact that such diets generally result in a lowered level of free amino acids in plasma (3, 26).

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## General Discussion

DR MILTON TOPOREK (Ann Arbor Michigan) I should like to comment on Dr Waisman's observations

We have run numerous electrophoretic patterns on sera and plasma of leukemic patients and an almost invariable finding is that the globulins tend to be elevated with respect to normal and the albumin is somewhat decreased. This has been observed by many other people. Also the same sort of situation has been observed in almost any acute or chronic situation that one can think of.

I believe the amino acid picture—in other words the change from normal—which Dr Waisman has observed is directly related to this sort of situation. Furthermore I believe the fact that no significant change was observed as a result of therapy is merely a reflection of the fact that the primary condition which leads to the aberration of plasma protein synthesis has simply not been touched by the therapy.

DR RALPH ENGLE (New York New York) We have been interested in the amino acid excretion in the urine of patients with multiple myeloma a disease closely related to leukemia (13)

Using the two dimensional paper chromatography technique as outlined by Dent to study the urines in twenty six patients with multiple myeloma we have found that twenty five have had essentially normal excretions of amino acids. One patient however who has proved to be extremely interesting had a very large excretion of all amino acids. On further study this particular patient was found to have the complete adult Fanconi syndrome that is the patient was excreting large quantities of glucose, uric acid, bicarbonate and a number of other substances into the urine which ordinarily would be held back in the plasma.

Finally the most interesting feature about this patient with the Fanconi syndrome was that at autopsy his kidney tubules were almost completely destroyed by crystalline material which had precipitated out in the epithelial cells of the renal tubule not in the lumen. We feel that this marked destruction of the renal tubular epithelium accounted for the adult Fanconi syndrome in this patient with multiple myeloma. The nature of the crystalline material is not known with certainty. The patient excreted up to 50 g. of Bence Jones protein into the urine per day however and this may have become deposited in the cells.

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## 22

### Metabolic Stability of PNA and DNA in Human Leukemic Leukocytes, The Function of Lymphocytes<sup>1</sup>

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#### Introduction

The key role of the nucleic acids in the etiology and pathophysiology of the leukemias has been recognized in this International Symposium there are sessions devoted to genetic factors in the transmission of leukemia and to nucleic acids as the target for the chemotherapy of leukemia.

There are two main types of nucleic acid: pentose nucleic acid (PNA) and deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). (The nucleic acids and their precursors are being so intensively investigated that workers are too hurried to refer to these substances by their full proper names; instead they use agglutinations of capital letters: see Buchanan and Goldthwait, this Symposium.) DNA is found in all living cells with the exception of some viruses which contain its close relative PNA. In mammalian cells 90% of PNA is in the cytoplasm and 10% in the nucleus; in plants and animals all the DNA is in the nucleus, localized in the chromosomes—the gene carriers (Fig. 1).

A wealth of circumstantial evidence from classical cytology and genetics all pointed to the nucleic acids as the best candidates for controllers of the character and rate of growth of cells. The first direct evidence that nucleic acids were themselves the actual genetic material came with the isolation from bacteria of DNA that could confer different morphological (1) or enzymic capacities on other bacteria of the

<sup>1</sup> The work has been aided by grants from the National Cancer Institute of the United States Public Health Service C 1813 and from the Commonwealth Fund.

<sup>2</sup> Scholar of the American Cancer Society



same species and endow those bacteria and their descendants with these properties (18-33). For example, it is possible to transform a penicillin sensitive pneumococcus into a penicillin resistant organism by incubating the sensitive organism with DNA isolated from the resistant strain. The fact that almost pure DNA effects this bacterial transformation is the most convincing evidence that DNA is the hereditary material (32-33). Complementary evidence of a genetic role for DNA comes from the observation that a bacteriophage injects about  $2 \times 10^{10}$  / of DNA and perhaps one tenth as much protein into a bacterium and it is this DNA that appears capable of self replication in the bacterial cell with the production of numerous new phages (29-30-31). The recent demonstration that only the PNA of tobacco mosaic virus is infective points to an analogous genetic role for PNA in plant viruses (20).

Although similar direct evidence is not yet forthcoming in mammals, quantitative cytochemical and genetic evidence supports the genetic significance of DNA. Other circumstantial and controversial evidence has linked PNA to protein synthesis. Since most evidence indicates that cancer cells result from modifications of the genetic equipment of normal cells, it seems reasonable to hope that differences between cancer and normal cells might be demonstrable in their nucleic acids. Accordingly, studies are being made on the biosynthesis, metabolism and structure of the nucleic acids of normal and leukemic human leukocytes.

#### Biosynthesis of Nucleic Acids

Mammals do not have a nutritional requirement for preformed nucleic acids or for any nucleic acid component, other than phosphate; they are able to synthesize their complex polynucleotides from simple precursors. It is possible therefore that the utilization of larger building blocks for nucleic acid synthesis, such as exogenous purines, is in effect a by-passing of part of the normal biosynthetic pathway. It has been shown that a wide variety of organisms can utilize exogenous purines for the synthesis of polynucleotides (6). Exogenous adenine is not only utilized as such in polynucleotides but is also transformed into polynucleotide guanine; similarly, exogenous guanine is utilized as such and transformed in a number of species into polynucleotide adenine. There is in fact a considerable diversity in patterns of purine utilization (6-22). A much simplified diagram of the pathways of purine incorporation and interconversion is given in Fig. 2.

#### Utilization of the Purines in Man

This communication describes experiments on the utilization of  $C^{14}$  labeled purines for nucleic acid synthesis in the leukocytes of patients

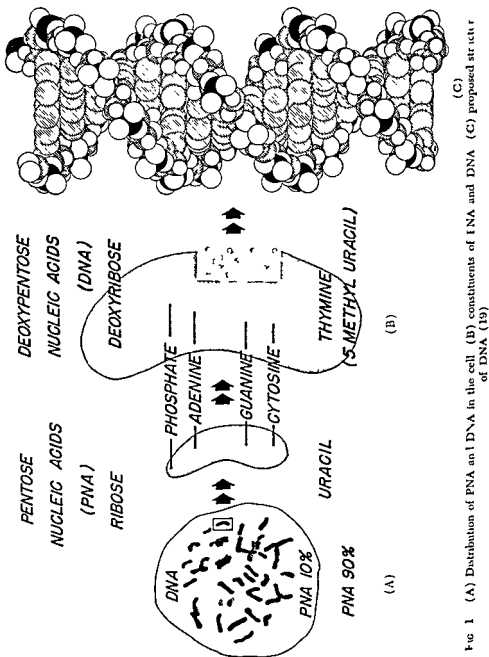


FIG. 1 (A) Distribution of PNA and DNA in the cell (B) constituents of PNA and DNA (C) proposed structure of DNA (19)



eral blood. Although the total white count fluctuated considerably ranging between 80 000 and 200 000/mm<sup>3</sup> the intensity of radioactivity of the purine in the nucleic acids remained constant. This is consistent with the idea that leukocytes in the peripheral blood of a patient with leukemia are a random sample of the total leukocytes of that individual and that the leukocytes in the peripheral blood represent only a proper

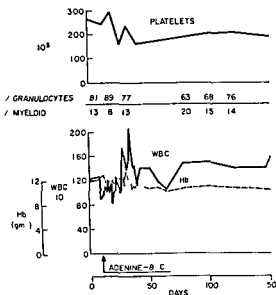


FIG 3 MW male patient, age 30 having chronic granulocytic leukemia

tion of the total leukocytes in the body. Similar fluctuations are seen (Fig 4) in the lymphocyte count on FR a male patient, age 47 having chronic lymphatic leukemia for whom representative data on the incorporation of adenine into nucleic acids will be given. Although his peripheral count ranged from 60 000 to over 250 000/mm<sup>3</sup> the curves of the amount of radioactivity in purines of nucleic acids of lymphocytes plotted against time remained unchanged. Again this suggests that lymphocytes in the peripheral blood are a random sample of total lymphocytes of that individual and also that they represent only a small proportion of the total lymphocytes of the body. This patient during the period of study had at least 90% mature small lymphocytes in his peripheral blood.

Blood was collected at intervals after the single injection of the labeled

having chronic leukemia. The patterns of purine utilization in man are unknown except for some preliminary observations (21, 23, 24). Since patients having chronic leukemia represent a store of readily accessible cells which have an intensively active nucleic acid synthesis, studies on the utilization of  $C^{14}$  labeled purines for nucleic acid synthesis were undertaken in such subjects. For this purpose patients having chronic lymphatic or chronic granulocytic leukemia with leukocyte counts of at least  $100,000/mm^3$ , a reasonably good hemoglobin and in good general

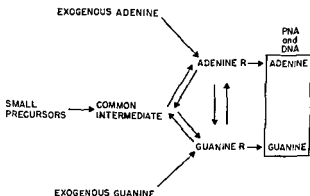


FIG. 2. Possible pathways of purine incorporation and interconversion into PNA and DNA.

condition were selected. In the lymphatic leukemia patients the predominant cell type was the small lymphocyte and in the granulocytic patients the leukocytes were polymorphonuclears. Adenine  $8 C^{14}$  ( $200 \mu c$ ) was given once intravenously to two patients having chronic lymphatic and to two having chronic granulocytic leukemia; another patient having chronic lymphatic leukemia was given guanine  $8 C^{14}$ . A patient with a leukemoid reaction consisting of mature polymorphonuclear leukocytes  $50,000$  to  $70,000/mm^3$  was given adenine  $8 C^{14}$ . This patient had a bronchogenic carcinoma with direct invasion of the ribs; the leukemoid reaction was presumed to be secondary to bone marrow irritation as the result of this local invasion. No infection or other explanation could be assigned for the elevated leukocyte count.

Figure 3 shows the main hematological findings in M.W., a male patient, age 30, having chronic granulocytic leukemia, for whom representative data on incorporation of adenine into nucleic acids will be given. It will be noted that during the period of study the proportion of mature polymorphonuclear leukocytes together with the myelocytes and metamyelocytes made up usually at least 90% of the cells in the periph-

Figure 5 shows the incorporation of adenine into the PNA of the granulocytes of patient MW. The data are plotted uniformly: the ordinate, radioactivity of the purines in counts per minutes per micro mole isolated from the PNA of granulocytes; the abscissa, time in days.

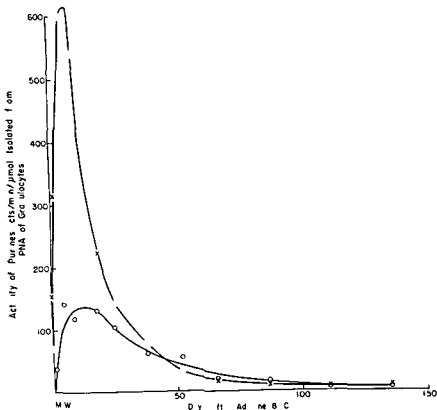


FIG. 5. Incorporation of adenine-8-C<sup>14</sup> into PNA of granulocytes of patient MW having chronic granulocytic leukemia.

after the single intravenous injection of labeled purine. It is seen that in granulocytes there is extensive incorporation of adenine as such into PNA and eventual transformation of adenine into PNA guanine. There was little significant radioactivity demonstrable after 100 days. The incorporation of adenine and the metabolic activity of the PNA of the granulocytes is much like that described for PNA in a wide variety of tissues. Similar data are plotted in Fig. 6 which show the incorporation

purine Leukocytes were separated from red cells by the use of dextran and standard procedures were employed for the separation of pentose nucleic acid and deoxyribonucleic acid from the leukocytes. The radioactivities were determined of the separated individual purines of the nucleic acids of the leukocytes from the first two patients studied the purines were separated by paper chromatography. The radioactivities

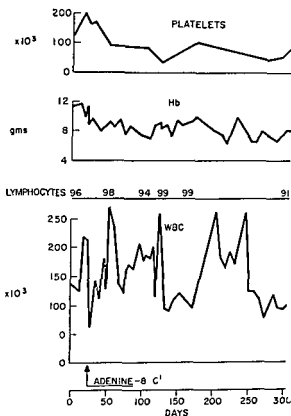


FIG 4 FR male patient age 47 having chronic lymphatic leukemia

of the PNA nucleotides and of the DNA purines and pyrimidines of nucleic acids of the leukocytes were determined on later patients. PNA nucleotides were separated by paper electrophoresis and the DNA bases by paper chromatography. The leukocytes of the first two patients were extracted with trichloroacetic acid to remove free purines and acid soluble nucleosides and nucleotides. Leukocytes of later patients were extracted with perchloric acid; these perchloric acid extracts were neutralized and frozen for later analysis of the acid soluble components.

of the nucleus and PNA of the cytoplasm—and it is probable that there are several slightly different PNAs in the cytoplasm. It has also been suggested that DNA may be metabolically heterogeneous (3) evidence for heterogeneity has come from fractionation of DNA (2 7 8 17). In the meanwhile a considerable literature has accumulated on the relative rates of PNA and DNA turnover (6 46). From these studies it would appear that DNA turnover is as rapid as that in PNA at least in bone marrow and intestine—that is in rapidly dividing tissues. It may be deduced therefore from the fact that the turnovers of the PNA and DNA of leukemic granulocytes are of the same order of intensity that these cells are rapidly dividing.

The data obtained on the incorporation of adenine into the nucleic acids of lymphocytes sharply contrast with those obtained from granulocytes. Figure 7 is a plot of the incorporation of adenine into the PNA of lymphocytes; it is seen that as in the granulocytes adenine is incorporated as such into PNA adenine and transformed into PNA guanine. The extent of this incorporation and transformation into the PNA of the lymphocyte is very similar to that seen in the PNA of the granulocytes. In contrast with the PNA of the granulocyte there is prolonged retention of radioactivity in the PNA purines of the lymphocyte. Thus significant radioactivity could still be found at 280 days after the injection of labeled adenine in both PNA adenine and PNA guanine. It can be seen that the declines in the radioactivity of PNA purines when both purines are equally labeled lie parallel. The incorporation of adenine into the DNA of lymphocytes (Fig 8) is much less extensive than that seen in PNA. Again adenine is incorporated as such and transformed into DNA guanine. As in the PNA there is prolonged retention of radioactivity in DNA adenine and in DNA guanine the declines being parallel in both purines after both are equally radioactive. The lesser incorporation into DNA as compared to PNA is similar to the relationship of DNA to PNA seen in slowly dividing tissues such as resting liver.

As seen in Figs 7 and 8 considerable variation in the ratio of incorporation of PNA to that of DNA can be observed depending on the time of sampling after the administration of the isotope. Such variations in the time relations of experiments are the cause of much confusion in the literature on the relative ratio of PNA to DNA labeling. If as it now seems reasonable to assume PNA turnover in the cell is related to protein synthesis or some closely allied metabolic function and DNA turnover to cellular division and multiplication the turnover of PNA would be relatively greater than that of DNA in tissues that were actively engaged in synthetic processes but were themselves only slowly divid-

of adenine into the DNA of the same granulocytes. It is apparent that the incorporation and transformation of adenine is similar to that seen in PNA and that the extent of the incorporation and transformation and the retention of isotope in the DNA adenine and the DNA guanine are very similar to that in the PNA.

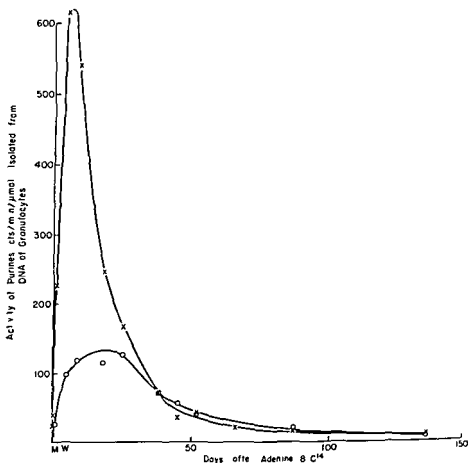


FIG. 6. Incorporation of adenine 8-C<sup>14</sup> into DNA of granulocytes of patient MW having chronic granulocytic leukemia.

There has been much said in the literature about the relative incorporation of different precursors into PNA and DNA (6). Much of the discussion has been based on experiments in which only one or a few points were plotted against time after the administration of the isotope. Further, it must be recognized that PNA is heterogeneous metabolically (46, 47). There are at least two main metabolic classes of PNA—PNA

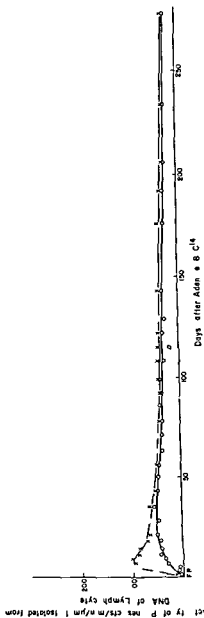


FIG. 8. Incorporation of adenine 8  $C^{14}$  into DNA of lymphocytes of patient F.R. having chronic lymphatic leukemia

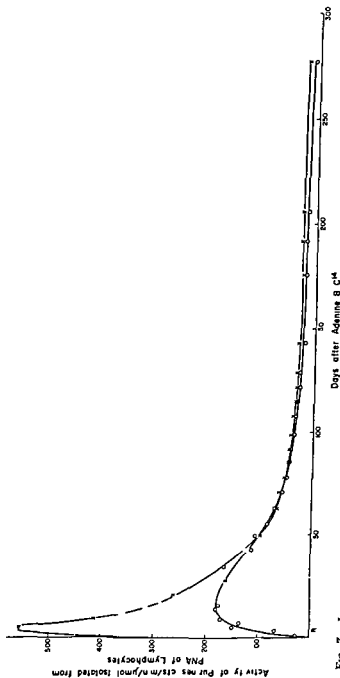


FIG. 7 Incorporation of adenine-8-C<sup>14</sup> into PNA of lymphocytes of patient F.R. having chronic lymphatic leukemia



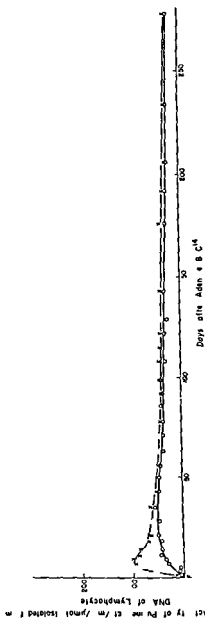


FIG. 8 Incorporation of adenine 8 C<sup>14</sup> into DNA of lymphocytes of patients with chronic lymphatic leukemia

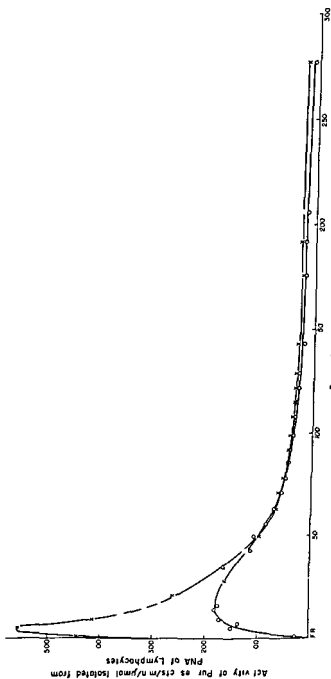


FIG 7 Incorporation of adenine 8-C<sup>14</sup> into PNA of lymphocytes of patient F R having chronic lymphatic leukemia

periods and others surviving for longer. The situation for the lymphocyte DNA data is slightly different as indicated by the prolonged retention of isotope. If the log of radioactivity is plotted against linear time it is seen that the decline in radioactivity in lymphocyte DNA and indeed in lymphocyte PNA can be divided into two phases: an initial rapid decline followed by a slow decline having a half time of the order of 300 days. It has already been made clear from the ratio of PNA turnover to DNA turnover that the lymphocyte is a more slowly dividing cell than the granulocyte; it is reasonable to assume therefore that the leukemic lymphocyte survives longer than does the leukemic granulocyte. Corresponding calculations on the DNA of the lymphocytes before the slow decline in the radioactivities of the purines show that leukemic lymphocytes survive on the average for 85 days.

It is conceivable that the slow decline which has a half time of the order of 300 days represents a second type of leukemic lymphocyte with a longer life than 85 days. An alternative interpretation is that this slow decline represents the reutilization by lymphocytes of large fragments of the nucleic acids or nucleoproteins of their progenitors (cf 25-30a). The present biochemical evidence does not permit decision whether this prolonged retention of isotope reflects the survival of some cells for a long time or such a reutilization.

It may be postulated that this reutilization if it occurs must be a reutilization of large fragments of nucleic acids or nucleoproteins. First, the decline in radioactivity of DNA adenine is parallel to that in DNA guanine. This may mean that a portion of polynucleotide large enough to contain both adenine and guanine had to be reutilized. To harmonize with current ideas of the DNA macromolecule (19-50) such a fragment must contain at least four nucleotides. Second, there is additional evidence that reutilization of free purines does not take place (14). Furthermore, the initial rapid incorporation of exogenous purines suggests that the sharp break in the slope of the radioactivity of the DNA purines of the lymphocytes must be due to a metabolic process distinct from that associated with the initial incorporation of free purine.

Other kinds of evidence speak in favor of such a reutilization. The phagocytosis of lymphocytes by reticulum cells in lymph nodes and the differentiation of these reticulum cells into new lymphocytes have been repeatedly observed (5-27). Maximow noted and then ignored this differentiation of lymphocytes from reticulum cells (38). More recently cells have been described that are intermediate between these reticulum cells and large lymphocytes which still contain pyknotic nuclei in their cytoplasm; such observations have been made by means of both the

ing The turnover of DNA could be as great as that of PNA in tissues which were dividing rapidly as well as synthesizing rapidly or alternatively in cells which were dividing more slowly but were less active metabolically The granulocytes are a good example of a tissue in which PNA and DNA turnovers appear to be almost identical this is therefore a cell that is assumed to be dividing rapidly In contrast lymphocytes appear to be a much more slowly dividing tissue The two types of leukemic white cells thus form a neat contrast of cell types in one DNA turnover is as great as PNA turnover in the other DNA turnover is much less than PNA turnover Although as a general rule the metabolic stability of DNA is much greater than that of PNA it now seems that in rapidly dividing tissues the metabolic stability of DNA is not very different from that of PNA

#### Metabolic Stability of DNA and Survival Time of Leukocytes

There is evidence already briefly referred to to the effect that in corporation of precursors into DNA is directly proportional to the mitotic activity of the particular tissue so that turnover is greatest in rapidly dividing tissues such as intestine tumors and regenerating liver and that in many tissues when the labeled compounds are incorporated they disappear from the cellular DNA far more slowly than from PNA This does not apply to granulocytes or lymphocytes In granulocytes the decline in radioactivity of PNA is the same as that of DNA and in lymphocytes the declines in radioactivities of the PNA purines only slightly exceed those of the DNA purines There is no coherent evidence that there is metabolic turnover of DNA during the life of the cell independent of cellular division This is not surprising If DNA is indeed *the* genetic material it would seem unlikely that it would break down before or during cell division else it would be an impossibly unstable transmitter of inheritance (34)

If the assumption is made that DNA once formed in a cell persists essentially unchanged for the life of the cell the average survival time of that cell can be calculated from the DNA turnover data Analyses of the DNA data by the solution of the Volterra integral equation of the first kind on the assumption that the DNA remains with the cell for its life give an average survival time for the leukemic granulocyte of 23 days "Average survival time" means the time from the earliest formation of the cell in the bone marrow to the termination of its life in the peripheral blood that is it includes both formation time and intravascular life span It must be emphasized that 23 days is an approximate figure—it represents the average of cells surviving for shorter

periods and others surviving for longer. The situation for the lymphocyte DNA data is slightly different as indicated by the prolonged retention of isotope. If the log of radioactivity is plotted against linear time it is seen that the decline in radioactivity in lymphocyte DNA and indeed in lymphocyte PNA can be divided into two phases: an initial rapid decline followed by a slow decline having a half time of the order of 300 days. It has already been made clear from the ratio of PNA turnover to DNA turnover that the lymphocyte is a more slowly dividing cell than the granulocyte; it is reasonable to assume therefore that the leukemic lymphocyte survives longer than does the leukemic granulocyte. Corresponding calculations on the DNA of the lymphocytes before the slow decline in the radioactivities of the purines show that leukemic lymphocytes survive on the average for 85 days.

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light (Trowell personal communication) and electron microscope (Dempsey personal communication). These histological observations provide morphological grounds for thinking that there may be utilization of large fragments of lymphocyte nucleic acids or nucleoproteins mediated by phagocytosis.

Whatever the interpretation of the data their consistency is clear. For example preliminary data on the incorporation of guanine-8  $C^{14}$  into the DNA purines of another patient S.B. a female age 64 having chronic lymphatic leukemia is charted in Fig. 9. It can be readily seen that the results are very similar to those obtained with adenine the chief difference being that guanine is incorporated as such into the DNA more extensively than it is transformed into DNA adenine. The upper slope represents DNA guanine and the lower DNA adenine. The data obtained for PNA nucleotides were similar incorporation into guanylic acid exceeding transformation into adenylic acid. Both PNA and DNA showed prolonged retention of isotope in the PNA nucleotides and the DNA purines retention in the DNA exceeded that in the PNA. Thus results obtained with exogenous guanine paralleled those with exogenous adenine. Further experiments are in progress in which  $C^{14}$  labeled adenine and orotic acid and guanine and orotic acid are given conjointly in the hope that something more definite can be learned about the meaning of prolonged retention of isotope in lymphocytes.

#### Work of Other Investigators on the Survival Time of Leukocytes

Many investigators have tried by a variety of techniques to estimate the average survival time of normal and leukemic leukocytes. This discussion is confined to those who have used DNA turnover as an index. Osgood *et al.* (42) measured the incorporation of radioactive phosphorus into the DNA of different types of leukocytes. In their first publication they tried to deduce life span solely from the uptake of  $P^{32}$  into the DNA i.e. no data were given on the retention of isotope in the DNA. They claimed that the granulocyte in chronic granulocytic leukemia had a life span of 3 days; how this was deduced was obscure. Similarly they stated the life span of the lymphocyte in chronic lymphocytic leukemia to be 30 days.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> After this presentation my attention was drawn to a later publication by Osgood *et al.* (43) in which their early data were recalculated. The mathematical assumptions underlying these calculations are not explicit and evaluation must therefore await full publication. Recalculation of their data gave an average survival time of 5 days for the granulocyte in chronic granulocytic leukemia and 84 days for the lymphocyte in chronic lymphatic leukemia; the latter figure agrees with that found in the present study.

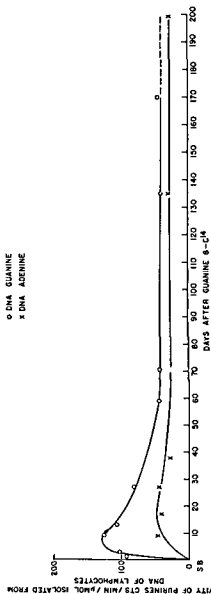


FIG 9 Incorporation of guanine 8 C<sup>14</sup> into DNA of lymphocytes of patient S B having chronic lymphatic leukemia

Kline and Clifton (36) estimated the average survival time of leukocytes in normal subjects by charting the incorporation and turnover of  $P^{32}$  in the DNA of total leukocytes they arrived at 13.2 days as the average for all cell types. They also used a solution of the Volterra integral equation for their calculations of the average survival time; this procedure is analogous to that used by Shemin and Rittenberg for the life span of the red cells (45).

Ottesen (44) applied an ingenious technique for the separation of granulocytes and lymphocytes. He then studied the incorporation of  $P^{32}$  into the DNA of both cell types in an 88 year old woman and a 44 year old woman, both were hematologically normal. From other mathematical considerations he derived a method of calculation not much different from the method of Shemin and Rittenberg. The DNA data by his solution gave an average survival time of the granulocyte of 9 days; his lymphocyte data appear much less susceptible to satisfactory mathematical analyses of this type. He suggests that lymphocytes fall into two groups: one group with an average survival time of 3 to 4 days and another with an average survival time of 100 to 200 days. In his older patient 22% of lymphocytes were in the short lived group and 78% in long lived group; in the younger patient the short lived cells formed 11% and the long lived 89% of the total lymphocytes in circulation.

Preliminary study of the data obtained by us with  $C^{14}$  adenine on a patient with a leukemoid reaction in which the predominant cell was the polymorphonuclear leukocyte gave as a first approximation an average survival time for the granulocyte of 9 days. This is in good agreement with the findings of Ottesen for the normal granulocyte. If the figure of 9 days is accepted as the average survival time of the normal granulocyte and the average survival time of leukocytes of both cell types is 13 days, the normal lymphocyte must clearly have a survival time of longer than 13 days. By rough calculation with lymphocytes assumed to constitute one third of the leukocytes, the average survival time must be at least 21 days. The results therefore suggest that both leukemic granulocytes and lymphocytes survive longer in chronic leukemic patients than do normal granulocytes and lymphocytes in the nonleukemic subjects.

#### The Function of the Lymphocyte

The function of the lymphocyte has long been the subject of speculation and controversy (16-49). The high nucleic content of the lymphocyte (the mature lymphocyte is virtually a naked nucleus) and the



possibility from morphological and biochemical evidence that there may be reutilization of lymphocytes by phagocytosis invite speculation on how their nucleic acids are related to function. If the main function of the nucleic acids is to act as genetic codes for the construction of different proteins it would be reasonable to expect that their presence in such large amounts in lymphocytes denotes a similar function in lymphocytes. Awareness that lymphatic tissue is an important site of protein synthesis—as indicated by antibody production—has been obscured by an inability to differentiate between the roles of lymph nodes and of the mature lymphocyte (26). Clarity was not aided by the partisanship of supporters of one or another cell type as the main carrier of antibodies.

The presence of such large amounts of nucleic acid and this process of reutilization suggest that lymphocytes may function mainly as a store of nucleic acids. These nucleic acids in the lymphocytes would serve as templates for the synthesis of the protein antibodies. Clearly there would be numerous nucleic acids each capable of the production of a specific antibody. This hypothesis provides an explanation of the ability to transfer immune reactions by the transfer of lymph nodes or lymphocytes for example. Chase succeeded in transferring hypersensitivity to tuberculin by means of cells from lymph nodes of tuberculous guinea pigs (9). This observation has been confirmed by many workers and extended by Chase (10, 11, 13, 35, 37, 39, 48). Mitchison obtained cells from lymph nodes regional to tumor homografts and transferred them either minced or in suspension to a secondary host; the transferred cells conferred immunity on the recipient (40, 41). Similar experiments have been performed by Billingham *et al.* (4) on skin transplantation between different lines of mice. Since antibodies are incapable of self replication (28) and there is clear evidence that not enough passive antibody could be transferred to account for the long continued immunity conferred on the recipient (12, 15) it is likely that some self replicating mechanism was carried over in this way. If we accept the function of the lymphocytes as a store of specific nucleic acid for the production of specific antibodies along with the process of reutilization by phagocytosis of large fragments of these nucleic acids these observations can be readily explained. Similarly the ability to prevent the production of antibody in later life by exposing embryos to specific antigens (4) can be explained by the exhaustion of the specific DNAs responsible for producing the homologous antibodies; this disappearance of DNA may be due to an absence in the embryo of the conservation mechanism represented by phagocytosis and reutilization.

The continued formation of antibody long after limited contact be

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### The Function of the Lymphocyte

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tween tissues and antigen in the adult is readily understood if phagocytosis and reutilization of nucleic acid are invoked this allows a continued and selective preservation of templates necessary for the production of specific antibodies. It is postulated that the embryo has an enormous variety of species of nucleic acids capable of producing antibodies to most proteins. Exposure of the embryo to antigen might lead to breeding out of the specific nucleic acids responsible for producing the antibody to that antigen. In the adult potentialities not bred out in the embryo remain the presence of new antigen selectively stimulates the production of nucleic acids responsible for the synthesis of specific antibody and the process of phagocytosis with reutilization of nucleic acids allows for their selective preservation.

### Acknowledgments

I wish to thank Mrs R Menegas Miss N Mizen Mrs S Shah and Mrs B Weliky for their assistance with various stages of the work. Dr C C Stock for encouragement and facilities. Dr G B Brown Dr M E Balis and Dr A Bendich for helpful advice about technical methods leading to this work. Dr S Schuster and Mr M Berman for much discussion and assistance in the mathematical analyses. Dr M E Balis for supplying part of the  $C^{14}$  adenine and Dr J Burchenal and the Chemo-therapy Service Memorial Center as a member of which I have carried out the clinical part of these studies.

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Urinary Uric Acid Excretion in Leukemia<sup>1</sup>

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Serum uric acid levels are often elevated in patients with leukemia and lymphomas and they may be further raised by treatment with a variety of agents. This phenomenon is a well known clinical entity and occasional case reports have described the complications that may occur from it (7, 8, 10, 12).

In order to clarify the nature of this disturbance and to differentiate if possible the role of the primary disease from the role of therapy in its production, we have undertaken a systematic study of uric acid metabolism in patients with leukemia.

**Material and Methods**

The subjects of these studies were patients with diagnoses of chronic myelocytic leukemia, chronic lymphatic leukemia, and acute leukemia. All the patients were hospitalized throughout the period of study. A constant purine intake was not attempted. In most instances, however, the dietary purine was low and in many cases caloric intake was low. In addition to the usual hematologic parameters of evaluation, daily total urine uric acid determinations were made. Serum uric acid was determined two to three times weekly. The method employed for the determination of urine uric acid was a modification of the method of Archibald (3). Duplicate dilutions of urine were set up. One specimen was incubated with 0.01 ml of liquid uricase (Worthington) for 90

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### Results and Discussion

From the data available certain tentative hypotheses have been formulated about the mechanism of the uric acid abnormality in leukemia and the relationship of this mechanism to the therapeutic measures which have been found to have some favorable effect upon the disease

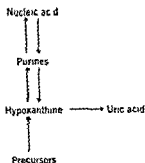


FIG. 2. Simplified presentation of pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis

It has been conventionally assumed that in the effective therapy of leukemia lysis of large numbers of leukocytes and degradation of their nucleic acid purines into the end product uric acid are the means by which hyperuricemia and uricosuria are produced. Although this mechanism is an important one under some circumstances there is reason to believe that there are other more complex metabolic pathways which are highly important in understanding this problem. Figure 1 represents a simple but conventional concept of the normal route of nucleic acid synthesis incorporating into the same scheme the route of endogenous uric acid synthesis which partly parallels that of nucleic acid (5). Although it is thought that the bulk of uric acid in man comes from the breakdown of nucleoprotein several studies (1, 2, 9) have demonstrated *de novo* synthesis of uric acid in the human subject. When  $N^{15}$  labeled glycine is given there is prompt incorporation of a small portion of it into uric acid in a time interval which is too short to allow for incorporation into nucleic acid and subsequent degradation. The magnitude of this prompt incorporation varies—it is notably increased in gout. The evidence however seems clearly to indicate that the mechanism for *de novo* synthesis exists. There is in this system production of a fairly constant amount of uric acid and presumably a fairly constant amount of nucleic acid subject to the requirements of growth and other situations requiring accelerated cellular proliferation. Figure 2 is a simpler scheme of representing the same idea. The sim-

minutes at 37 to 45°. Then both specimens were subjected to color development and the optical densities read at 660  $m\mu$  in a Coleman Junior spectrophotometer. The difference in optical densities between the uricase treated and the untreated specimens was considered to represent true uric acid. Serum uric acid determinations were performed in a similar manner except that only occasional specimens were subjected to the incubation with uricase.

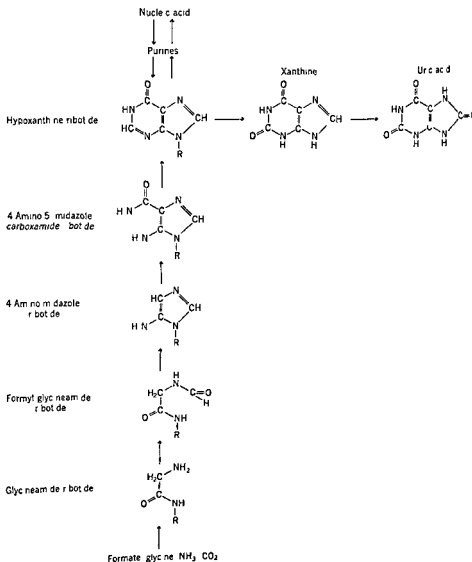


FIG. 1 Normal pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis



myelocytic leukemia previously untreated. During this period he was given only Fumigillin which had no effect on his disease. Throughout this time his serum and urine uric acids were elevated above normal. His white blood count was elevated but stable. Similar observations have been made in other cases of chronic myelocytic leukemia. It has not been possible to observe cases of acute leukemia with high leukocyte counts for such long periods of time with no treatment but briefer studies indicate that in that type of disease also the uric acid elevation is often though not always present prior to the institution of therapy. It has not been possible to correlate differences in uric acid levels with differences in cellular type nor has it been possible to correlate the differences with subsequent response to therapy. In untreated chronic lymphatic leukemia uric acid excretion has been found to be within normal limits.

In studying the effects of therapy on uric acid our attention has been focused primarily on the antimetabolites and specifically on any differences that might be observed between different classes of antimetabolites. Figure 4 identifies the site of action of three of these as demonstrated in bacterial and pigeon liver systems (4, 6, 11).

The purine analogs have been presumed to block the conversion of hypoxanthine to adenine; the antifolates block the conversion of 4-amino-5-imidazole carboxamide to hypoxanthine. The mustards and radiation have been considered to exert a direct effect on sensitive cells and to act by a destructive mechanism or by specifically inhibiting mitosis. Thus this synthetic pathway is not blocked but the cells do not become available which might incorporate the purine being synthesized.

If these observations are also valid for the situation which exists in the human subject with leukemia then qualitative and quantitative differences in uric acid excretion during therapy might be expected to occur. Some of the studies which we have performed on human patients with leukemia have seemed to substantiate this hypothesis.

Figure 5A represents the study of a patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia in whom, as expected, the uric acid excretion was elevated prior to therapy. Treatment with 6-mercaptopurine produced a gradual fall in white blood count with a continued elevation of urine uric acid. When the white count had fallen to normal levels with control of the disease the urine uric acid was normal.

If we refer to the previously mentioned path of metabolism (Fig 5B) we may construe this as a block in synthesis of nucleic acid with continued unimpaired production of uric acid subsiding with control of the disease.

plified scheme may serve as a basis for discussion of these mechanisms

In untreated leukemia there is a general acceleration of these synthetic pathways associated with increased formation of leukocytes containing

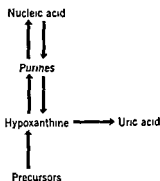


FIG 3A Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in untreated leukemia

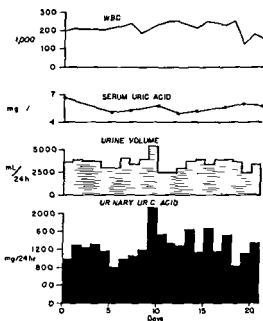


FIG 3B Study of patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia untreated

therefore increased amounts of nucleic acid. Along with the generalized acceleration of this pathway there is increased production of uric acid and this is reflected in the elevated serum and urine uric acids seen in untreated leukemia. This is shown diagrammatically in Fig 3A.

Figure 3B is a graph illustrating this situation in a patient with chronic

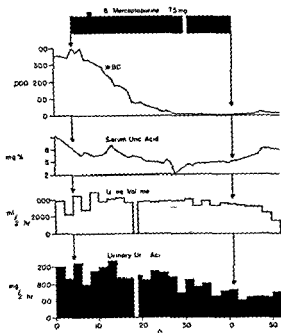


FIG 5A Study of patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia treated with 6-mercaptopurine

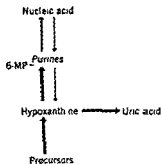


FIG 5B Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in leukemia treated with 6-mercaptopurine



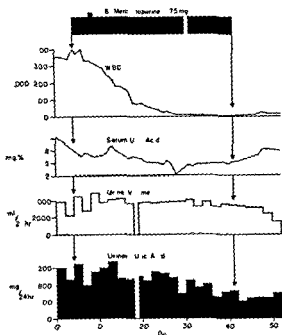


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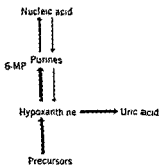


FIG 5B Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in leukemia treated with 6-mercaptopurine

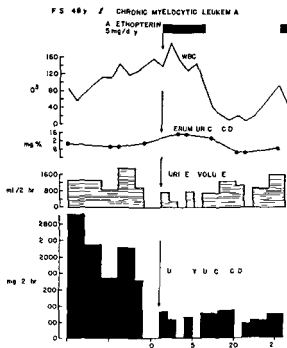


FIG 6A Study of patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia treated with amethopterin

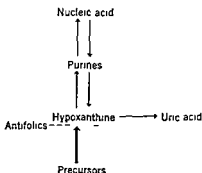


FIG 6B Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in leukemia treated with antifolates

Figure 7 is a sequential study of amethopterin and 6-mercaptopurine in a patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia. Although there are quantitative differences between the degrees of activity of disease in the two studies as well as between the urine uric acids in the two studies it can be seen that there is also a qualitative difference in that the urine uric acid decreased while the white blood count was falling

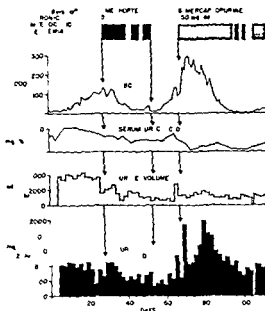


FIG. 7. Study of patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia treated with amethopterin and 6-mercaptopurine.

under the influence of amethopterin and rose while the count fell under the influence of 6-mercaptopurine.

Figure 8A demonstrates a study of a patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia treated with amethopterin which produced a fall in urine uric acid and serum uric acid. Subsequent x-ray therapy to the spleen while the patient was still receiving amethopterin produced a second fall in white blood count along with a rise in urine and serum uric acid. This would suggest that there is a fundamental difference in mechanism between these two types of treatment. One might infer from these data that amethopterin can effectively block synthesis of uric acid but that this block is not applicable in respect to uric acid derived from degradation of nucleic acid (Fig. 8B).

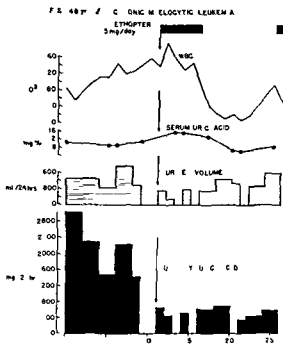


FIG 6A Study of patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia treated with amethopterin

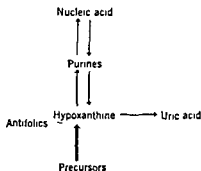


FIG 6B Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in leukemia treated with antifolics



2 to 3 weeks later. This study tends to confirm the impression that the uric acid abnormality is related to the presence of active leukemia more closely than to change in the number of circulating leukocytes.

Figure 10A illustrates the observations in a 44 year old man with acute leukemia treated with Meticorten. It can be seen that his urine uric acid

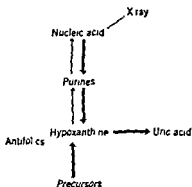


FIG. 8B. Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in leukemia treated with antifolates and x ray therapy.

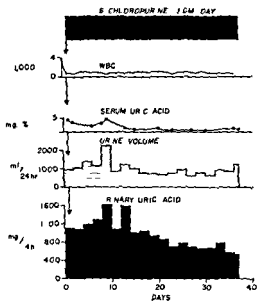


FIG. 9. Study of patient with acute stem cell leukemia treated with 6-chloropurine.

A further interesting factor in assessing the significance of uric acid in relation to the metabolic aspects of leukemia arises in the study of "aleukemic" leukemia. Figure 9 represents a study of a 15 year old girl with acute stem cell leukemia. During the early part of this study urine uric acid was elevated. After several weeks of treatment with 6 chloro-purine there was a fall in urine uric acid along with clinical and hematologic improvement. The end of this study coincides with the patient's discharge from the hospital. Complete hematologic remission occurred.

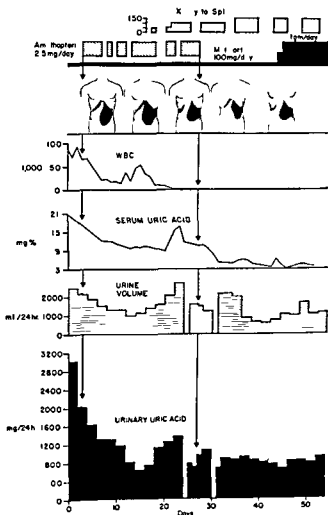


FIG 8A Study of patient with chronic myelocytic leukemia treated with amethopterin and x ray therapy

which was normal during the pretreatment period rose markedly with the administration of Meticorten while the leukocyte count was falling. Subsequently, in spite of the continued administration of meticorten the urine uric acid was within normal limits. One may infer that the marked rise in urine uric acid during the period of fall in leukocyte count was due to the destructive effect of Meticorten on the cells with degradation of their nucleic acid. Although the mechanism of action

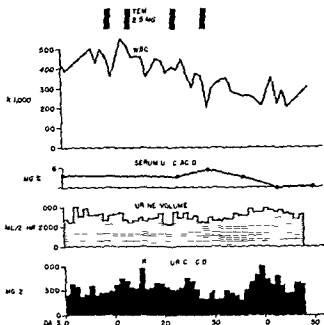


FIG. 11A Study of patient with chronic lymphatic leukemia treated with TEM

of adrenal corticosteroids in producing remission in leukemia is not clear it seems that the mechanism by which they produce this type of abrupt fall in leukocytes is through lysis of cells similar to the lysis of lymphoid tissue which has been described after steroid administration. In this respect they may be considered to be analogous to HN2 and x rays in the manner of which they produce a decrease in leukocytes and in their effect on uric acid excretion (Fig. 10B). There are of course other effects of steroids on uric acid metabolism which are not however germane to this discussion.

As was previously noted we have found uric acid excretion in chronic lymphatic leukemia to be normal or only slightly elevated. Figure 11A

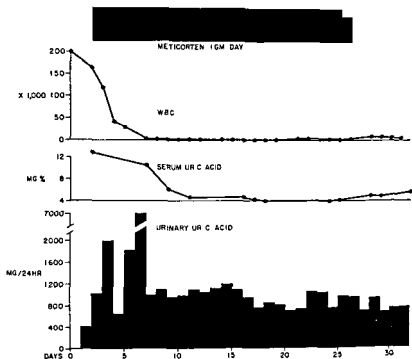


FIG. 10A Study of patient with acute leukemia treated with Meticorten

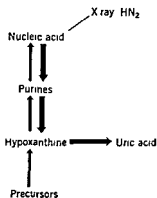


FIG. 10B Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in leukemia treated with x-ray therapy or HN<sub>2</sub> (Adrenal corticosteroids should be included with HN<sub>2</sub> and x-rays in this diagram)

prolonged survival or reutilization of complex DNA fragments could explain the ineffectiveness of antimetabolites which are functioning at a simpler level. On the other hand treatment with nitrogen mustard or x rays destroys cells and thus is not concerned with this mechanism. After that type of treatment the uric acid rises.

Although the studies presented form only a small part of the data available on this problem and only a minute part of the work which must still be done perhaps we may formulate some tentative hypotheses from these studies.

1 It appears that there is a general increase in uric acid metabolism in leukemia which parallels and is part of a similar increase in nucleic

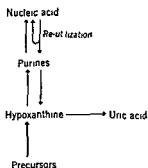


FIG. 11C Pathway of nucleic acid and uric acid synthesis in chronic lymphatic leukemia showing reutilization of DNA

acid metabolism. This does not occur however in chronic lymphatic leukemia.

2 This increase is roughly proportional to activity of the disease and is not necessarily correlated with the number of circulating leukocytes.

3 Leukemia in remission or "control" is characterized by normal serum and urine uric acid.

4 During the response to treatment the pattern of uric acid excretion differs with different therapeutic agents. Thus (a) the antifolates appear to produce a fall in uric acid due to interruption of purine synthesis at a relatively simple level. (b) the purine analogs produce a rise in uric acid due to interruption at a higher level at which the purine ring has already been formed and may be utilized for uric acid synthesis but not for nucleic acid synthesis. (c) nitrogen mustard radiation and adrenal corticosteroids produce a rise in uric acid related not to interruption of synthesis but to destruction of cells and degradation of nucleic acids.

is an example of such a patient. It can be seen that in the period before treatment was given the urine uric acid was normal. Subsequent treatment with TEM produced very little response in the disease and there was only a slight rise in urine uric acid. Another patient (Fig 11B) in whom a fall in leukocyte count was achieved with TEM exhibited a definite rise in urine uric acid. There is evidence that the survival time of the lymphocyte in chronic lymphatic leukemia is much longer than

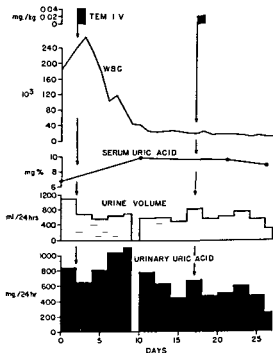


FIG 11B Study of patient with chronic lymphatic leukemia treated with TLM

that of the granulocyte. Just how much longer is not known but recent work of Hamilton (personal communication) suggests that the lymphocyte survives for months or that it reutilizes large fragments of DNA without the necessity to synthesize DNA from simple precursors. In either case the result would be a marked decrease in the turnover of simple precursors and nucleic acid degradation products. Figure 11C incorporates this idea into the simple scheme we have been using. It is interesting to consider the possible relationship of the low uric acid in chronic lymphatic leukemia to the slow turnover of DNA and its precursors. One might also consider the relation of these two factors to the failure of the antimetabolites to be effective in this disease. Either

## Nucleic Acids, Nucleases, and Nuclease Inhibitors in Leukemia

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The cells of acute and chronic leukemia have the capacity to divide repeatedly and to form new protein for their offspring. Division is controlled by DNA containing chromosomes; protein formation by the RNA containing cytoplasm and nucleoli. Therefore, we have investigated the nucleic acids, their purine and pyrimidine bases, and some of the enzyme systems responsible for their degradation and synthesis in the blood and bone marrow of normal persons and patients with leukemia and nonleukemic leukocytoses. These studies are by no means complete but are being reported as a preview. RNA has been determined by the orcinol method (1-13); DNA by the indole reaction (3) and the amounts have been expressed in terms of the average bone marrow cell. The purine and pyrimidine bases have been quantitated by a chromatographic procedure adapted to bone marrow analyses by our laboratory staff but based on the methods of Vischer and Chargaff (17) and others. No difference in cellular nuclease content of tumor cells compared with normal cells has been found by Greenstein (8); so this enzyme has not been investigated as yet.

The cellular content of RNA is increased in acute leukemia. Our initial results indicate that in this disease the average bone marrow cell contains about  $0.5 \times 10^6$  mg. as compared with  $0.2$  to  $0.3 \times 10^6$  mg. in the average bone marrow cells of normal individuals, of persons with hyperplastic marrows, and of persons with chronic lymphatic leukemia. These results are similar to those found by other investigators who used

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<sup>1</sup> Report delivered by Dr. Vilter.

The clinical studies presented are shown as representative examples. Other studies have been done with each of the agents discussed and in each case reveal results similar to those presented.

Further studies are now under way to elucidate these mechanisms in the human and in nonmammalian species.

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<sup>1</sup> Report delivered by Dr. Vilter

the phosphorus method for their analyses (6 7 14 15) Since the methods used were entirely different the agreement seems to be quite remarkable Perhaps the RNA excess found in acute leukemic cells is the factor which makes possible continued protein synthesis

The amount of DNA is increased in acute leukemic cells also Preliminary results from our laboratory indicate that the average bone marrow cells of patients with acute leukemia contain  $0.8 \times 10^8$  mg per cell as compared with values that range between 0.5 and  $0.8 \times 10^8$  mg per cell in persons with normal marrows hyperplastic marrows and marrows containing chronic lymphatic leukemia lymphocytes Comparable results have been obtained by other investigators who used the phosphorus method for their analyses (6 7 14 15) Any excess of DNA is probably the result of diploid and tetraploid chromosomes which are known to occur in leukemia and does not alter the concept that the resting haploid leukemia cells probably contain the same amount of DNA as the resting haploid normal cells

The pyrimidine bases are increased in acute leukemia also The average value for thymine in these cells is  $0.7 \times 10^8$  micromole per cell as compared with 0.4 to  $0.6 \times 10^8$  micromole per cell in normal marrows hyperplastic marrows and marrows with chronic lymphatic leukemia lymphocytes The average tentative values for uracil in acute leukemia are  $0.16 \times 10^8$  micromole per cell and  $0.05 \times 10^8$  micromole per cell in the other types of bone marrow studied The values for cytosine are  $0.8 \times 10^8$  micromole per cell in acute leukemia as compared with 0.4 to  $0.6 \times 10^8$  micromole in the other types of marrow studied The purines are increased also The average for adenine in acute leukemia marrows is  $0.8 \times 10^8$  compared with  $0.6 \times 10^8$  micromole in the other marrows studied The average for guanine in acute leukemia cells is slightly less than  $0.6 \times 10^8$  per cell as compared with slightly less than  $0.5 \times 10^8$  micromole in the cells of normal marrow hyperplastic marrow and chronic lymphatic leukemia marrow These initial results suggest that cytosine may be increased to a greater extent and guanine to a lesser degree than the others However these differences are not statistically valid as yet

In all these bone marrow analyses the ratio of purine to pyrimidine bases is very close to unity The ratio of thymine to DNA in acute leukemia marrows is slightly higher than in the other conditions studied The ratio of uracil to RNA is the same in all There is a greater increase of RNA and uracil than of DNA and thymine in the cells of acute leukemia in comparison with their normal relatives RNA/DNA ratios in acute leukemia are close to 0.6 compared with an average of 0.4 in a

normal individual. Uracil/thymine ratios are 0.22 in acute leukemia compared with 0.18 in the other conditions studied. These figures though provisional (since they are based on a study of 9 to 10 patients in each group) suggest that further analyses may indicate both a qualitative and a quantitative difference between the nucleic acids of the leukemic and the normal cell.

DNAase, an enzyme which depolymerizes the large DNA molecule (and perhaps polymerizes it) has not been measured by us but in other laboratories particularly Greenstein's it has been shown to exist in essentially the same amounts in animal leukemia and tumor cells as in normal cells. However a DNAase inhibitor previously described by Henstell *et al.* (9, 10) has been investigated. It has been quantitated by an alcohol precipitation test devised by McCarty (16) and by the methyl green test of Kurnick (11) in terms of residual crystalline pancreatic DNAase activity after the enzyme and the inhibitor have been incubated together. What one measures is the amount of polymerized substrate DNA that finally is left after the enzyme and the inhibitor mixture have been allowed to act upon it. This inhibitor is demonstrated most readily in normal cells. There are smaller amounts in cells of chronic myeloid leukemia and even less in cells of chronic lymphatic and acute blastic leukemia. The inhibitor concentrations can be expressed in arbitrary units called inhibitor units per 100,000 white cells. From 4 to 25 inhibitor units is the normal range. In chronic myeloid leukemia the inhibitor concentration is low, averaging about 2 inhibitor units per 100,000 cells. It is still lower in chronic lymphatic leukemia and in acute leukemia. In the leukocytoses associated with infection in leukemoid reactions in the benign lymphocytoses of whooping cough and infectious mononucleosis and in myeloid metaplasia associated with myelofibrosis the inhibitor content is within the normal range. These results are the same whether the test is performed by the methyl green method or by the alcohol precipitation technique.

As patients with leukemia are brought under treatment and the peripheral blood picture improves the inhibitor concentration tends to return towards normal. For instance in patients with chronic myeloid leukemia who are treated with myleran the inhibitor concentration rises as the total white blood cell count falls, numbers of immature cells decrease and normal polymorphonuclear cells appear. It may be important however that at a time when the number of cells is decreasing rapidly and they are becoming more mature the inhibitor content remains low. The rise occurs considerably later. This type of observation has been repeated many times. On occasion a relapse in the leu

leukemic process may be predicted several weeks or more in advance by a fall in the inhibitor concentration of the cells

In chronic lymphatic leukemia a change in the inhibitor concentration in the cells has not been demonstrated as the white count falls and patients go into partial remission. Usually as the total white cell count is reduced the percentage of lymphocytes remains elevated and the inhibitor concentration remains low. Apparently in this circumstance a new population of more normal lymphocytes does not appear in the peripheral blood and therefore the inhibitor concentration does not rise.

If one selects patients with equally high total white blood cell counts and lymphocyte percentages due to chronic lymphatic leukemia, whooping cough and infectious mononucleosis and if one determines the inhibitor concentration in each of these lymphocyte populations it becomes apparent that there is a great deal of difference between them. Patients with chronic lymphatic leukemia will have cells with an extremely low inhibitor content whereas patients with infectious mononucleosis and whooping cough will have cells with normal inhibitor content. This indicates a fundamental difference in the two types of lymphocytes though their appearance may be very similar.

This inhibitor of DNAase is a very labile substance. It disappears after 24 to 48 hours at  $-4^{\circ}$  and after 15 minutes at  $56^{\circ}$ . Its effect is instantaneous and reversible. It acts over a pH range from 3 to 11. It is nondialyzable, is destroyed by trypsin and is precipitated with the ribonucleic acid fraction. It can be adsorbed on  $\text{BaSO}_4$  and eluted with Na citrate. An atmosphere of nitrogen does not protect it. This substance has not yet been fully characterized although it probably contains protein; it is not an enzyme but inactivates DNAase without destroying it.

Other inhibitors of DNAase have been described. Kurnick (12) has investigated a protein inhibitor which is apparently involved in the lupus cell phenomenon. It is in the cytoplasm but in very much smaller concentrations. It is quite stable and is species specific. Unlike the inhibitor we have investigated it is found in larger amounts in leukemia cells and smaller amounts in normal cells. Zamenhof and Chargaff (18) described a species specific DNAase inhibitor obtained from yeast which was protein in nature and quite unstable. It did not attack pancreatic DNAase. Dabrowska *et al* (4, 5) described an unstable protein inhibitor of DNAase obtained from avian and mammalian organs. It too lacked species specificity. Bernheimer and Ruffier (2) reported on an inhibitor obtained from the streptococcus. It differed from the pre-

ceding substances in that it was destroyed by ribonuclease but not by trypsin. Only the inhibitors of Henstell and of Kurnack have been studied in leukemia, and it is apparent that these are entirely different substances.

They may however play an important role in the metabolism of the leukemia cell; the one we have studied might be responsible for the unlimited capacity for division demonstrated by the cells of acute leukemia victims since in these cells DNAase is relatively uninhibited. This situation may be partially responsible for the recurring degradation and synthesis of polymerized DNA.

### Summary

Cells of acute leukemia contain more DNA and RNA than normal bone marrow cells. RNA excess is greater than DNA excess so the RNA/DNA ratio is high. All the purines and pyrimidines are increased also, cytosine to a greater extent and guanine to a lesser extent than the others. These data suggest that the requirements for rapid cell division and protein formation are met in this way.

The DNAase content of tumor and leukemia cells is the same as in normal cells but a DNAase inhibitor is deficient in the cells of chronic lymphatic leukemia and acute leukemia. Cells of chronic myeloid leukemia have a somewhat higher concentration which, however, does not equal the amounts found in normal cells. Cells from patients with lymphocytic or granulocytic leukemoid reactions, leukocytoses or myeloid metaplasia. This inhibitor is a very labile constituent of the cytoplasm and may be implicated in chemical reactions that impart to the leukemic cells the potentiality for unlimited growth and reproduction.

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## Studies on Cysteine Metabolism in Leukemia

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This report will deal with some aspects of sulfhydryl metabolism as they may pertain to leukemia with special reference to the apparently unique role of the sulfhydryl amino acid L-cysteine. An attempt will be made to summarize some of the evidence for the importance of sulfhydryl compounds in general cellular metabolism as well as in disorders of leukocytes. Some relationships of L-cysteine metabolism to leukopoiesis and leukemia as well as the effects of an analog of cysteine on leukemia will also be presented. Throughout the discussion the terms cysteine and cystine will frequently be used interchangeably since they are readily interconverted and may be considered as a single amino acid in metabolism.

## General Aspects of Sulfhydryl Compounds in Cell Growth and Division

The importance of sulfhydryl compounds in cellular metabolism and in cell growth and division in general has been repeatedly emphasized. Sulfhydryl compounds in the reduced state (SH) have been found to stimulate mitosis in a wide variety of cells and tissues. Substances that oxidize sulfhydryl compounds ( $\text{SH} \rightarrow \text{S-S}$ ) or combine with SH groups to inactivate them have been found to inhibit cell division. The literature pertaining to this subject has been reviewed extensively by Brachet (8), by Contopoulos and Anderson (10) and by Barron (24).

The mechanisms by which sulfhydryl compounds may affect cell metabolism and cell growth and division are not known. Sulfhydryl compounds are universally distributed in cells and may thereby regulate cellular oxidation-reduction systems (5, 17, 19, 25). Sulfhydryl compounds are also known to be essential for the activity of many enzymes (2, 3, 6, 8). Brachet (8) has postulated that some of these enzymes may be involved in the synthesis of ribose and deoxyribose nucleic acids.

Vitamin B<sub>1</sub> which has an important role in cellular metabolism may function in forming SH compounds from their disulfide (S-S) precursors and thereby act directly or indirectly in the activation of SH enzymes (12-13). Ling and Chow have shown that B<sub>1</sub> deficiency in rats results in a diminution of the sulfhydryl content of blood. They suggest that B<sub>1</sub> may activate SH enzymes and that these enzymes may increase the utilization of carbohydrates thereby providing energy and building materials for the synthesis of cellular constituents (22).

Sulfhydryl compounds have been implicated in other fundamental synthetic processes such as the transfer of labile methyl groups from methionine (9). Sulfhydryl amino acids may also participate in protein synthesis by forming intermediate compounds during biosynthetic processes (15-39). Barron (5) has suggested that sulfhydryl compounds may be present in cells as soluble compounds which affect cellular respiration and that they may also affect cellular function by being present as fixed groups in enzyme protein complexes.

Thus sulfhydryl compounds may be involved in cell growth by furnishing energy for metabolism by activating essential SH enzymes or by forming intermediates during biosynthetic processes.

#### The Sulfhydryl Content of Normal and Leukemic Leukocytes

Sulfhydryl compounds have been implicated in the growth of malignant tumors in general (14-26, 28-30, 40). Thus tumor tissues have been found to contain a higher sulfhydryl concentration than normal tissues whereas a decrease in the amount of available sulfhydryl may result in the inhibition of tumor growth.

Similarly, abnormalities of sulfhydryl metabolism have frequently been implicated in disorders of leukocytes. The sulfhydryl content of normal and leukemic leukocytes has been studied by several investigators. Glutathione (GSH) appears to be the most important sulfhydryl compound present intracellularly and most studies have been on the content of GSH in leukocytes. The values obtained in different studies cannot be directly compared because of differences in technique and standards of expression. However many types of leukemic leukocytes have been reported to contain a higher concentration of GSH than normal leukocytes (7-10, 24, 31). Although most investigators have found a significant elevation in chronic myeloid leukemia there is no unanimity about the findings in chronic lymphatic leukemia and in acute leukemia. Both high and low concentrations of GSH have been reported in the leukocytes of chronic lymphatic leukemia and in acute leukemia. Con-topoulos and Anderson (10) found the highest GSH concentration in



the most immature leukemic leukocytes and suggest that the GSH concentration may be a criterion of the malignancy of the leukemic process

The elevations of GSH reported in leukemia appear to be independent of the height of the leukocyte count. Parker and Kracke (23) found no elevation of GSH in physiologic leukocytosis which supports the suggestion that increased GSH concentration may be correlated with degree of immaturity. Low GSH levels have been found in leukocytes in leukopenic states and in aplastic anemia (10, 21, 23). These values are also independent of the cell count.

It has frequently been suggested that the elevated GSH concentration in immature leukocytes may act as a growth stimulus. Hueper (18) and Kandel and LeRoy (20) believe that such an assumption is unwarranted. The latter were unable to correlate changes in GSH concentration with any variations in leukocytes. Similarly Hardin *et al* (16) were unable to corroborate the findings of elevated GSH concentrations in leukemic leukocytes reported by others.

It has been observed, however, that substances such as irradiation, nitrogen mustard, arsenic, gold, and benzol which inactivate sulfhydryl groups tend to produce a leukopenia. Furthermore, diets low in sulfhydryl amino acids result in a reduced incidence of induced leukemia in animals (41). Diets low in cysteine or in methionine (11), which is a cysteine precursor, result in leukopenia in animals. The leukopenia associated with either B<sub>12</sub> deficiency or folic deficiency may be associated with alterations in the effect of these substances on sulfhydryl metabolism (12, 13, 22, 27). Thus, although there is no unanimity of opinion, there is a great deal of evidence supporting the suggestion that sulfhydryl compounds may have an important role in normal and abnormal leukopoiesis.

#### The Importance of L Cysteine in the Metabolism of Leukocytes

The sulfhydryl amino acid L cysteine appears to have an especially important role in the metabolism of leukocytes. Thus L cysteine modifies the severe leukopenia characteristically induced by nitrogen mustard (HN2). No such protective effect occurs if L cysteine is administered after the injection of HN2 (Table I) (32). Certain structural components appear to be essential for this protective effect (33, 35). Thus many highly reactive compounds with structures closely related to L cysteine fail to modify the leukopenia induced by HN2, and only compounds containing a sulfhydryl amino and carboxyl group in close apposition are effective (Fig. 1).

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#### The Sulfhydryl Content of Normal and Leukemic Leukocytes

Sulfhydryl compounds have been implicated in the growth of malignant tumors in general (14 26 28-30 40) Thus tumor tissues have been found to contain a higher sulfhydryl concentration than normal tissues whereas a decrease in the amount of available sulfhydryl may result in the inhibition of tumor growth

Similarly abnormalities of sulfhydryl metabolism have frequently been implicated in disorders of leukocytes The sulfhydryl content of normal and leukemic leukocytes has been studied by several investigators Glutathione (GSH) appears to be the most important sulfhydryl compound present intracellularly and most studies have been on the content of GSH in leukocytes The values obtained in different studies cannot be directly compared because of differences in technique and standards of expression However many types of leukemic leukocytes have been reported to contain a higher concentration of GSH than normal leukocytes (7 10 24 31) Although most investigators have found a significant elevation in chronic myeloid leukemia there is no unanimity about the findings in chronic lymphatic leukemia and in acute leukemia Both high and low concentrations of GSH have been reported in the leukocytes of chronic lymphatic leukemia and in acute leukemia Coniopoulos and Anderson (10) found the highest GSH concentration in

been completed he has observed that many other sulfhydryl compounds are ineffective

The effects of L-cysteine depletion are also suggestive of the importance of this amino acid in the metabolism of leukocytes. As previously noted, animals fed on diets deficient in cysteine or its metabolic precursor methionine develop leukopenia (11). Lack of cystine in the diet reduces the incidence of leukemia in animals, whereas addition of cystine increases the incidence (41). This is not a nonspecific effect due to dietary restriction with subsequent weight loss, since similar restrictions of lysine and tryptophan have no effect on the incidence of leukemia. It has also been observed that cultures of human bone marrow on synthetic media deficient in either L-cysteine or L-cystine exhibit rapid degeneration of the leukocytes. Addition of either L-cysteine or L-cystine to the media results in a protective effect, especially of granulocytic leukocytes (1).

Studies with sulfur  $35$  ( $S^{35}$ ) labeled L-cystine demonstrate that the leukocytes of acute leukemia and of chronic myeloid leukemia exhibit a much more rapid incorporation of L-cystine than normal leukocytes (34). Tracer amounts of  $S^{35}$  L-cystine were administered orally to normal individuals and to patients with acute leukemia, and the amount of radioactivity present in the leukocytes was determined at intervals. More radioactivity appeared in the leukocytes of acute leukemia within 20 minutes than was present in normal leukocytes in 48 hours (Fig. 2). A similar rapid incorporation into leukocytes was observed in chronic myeloid leukemia but not in chronic lymphatic leukemia. Incorporation of  $S^{35}$  L-cystine also occurs when leukemic leukocytes are incubated with the radioactive amino acid *in vitro*. Radioactivity is present in several fractions in both acid soluble and acid insoluble extracts of these leukemic leukocytes (Fig. 3).

This rapid turnover of an amino acid by immature leukocytes is not limited to L-cystine and is probably a manifestation of the rapid metabolic turnover characteristic of immature cells in general. In view of the other observations on the importance of L-cysteine and L-cystine in leukopoiesis, however, the avidity of immature leukocytes for L-cystine may have greater significance.

#### The Effects of an Analog of Cystine on Leukemia

The preceding observations suggest that a decreased availability of sulfur in the form of L-cysteine or of L-cystine may have important effects on leukocytes. Since leukemic leukocytes have a much more rapid turnover of L-cystine than do normal leukocytes, they may be more sus-

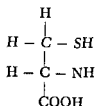


FIG 1 Structure of L cysteine Any modification of the reactive sulfhydryl amino or carboxyl group results in a loss of protective effect against mustard induced leukopenia

Compounds in which there is alteration or substitution of any of these reactive groups have no demonstrable effect in preventing HN2 induced leukopenia Removal of any of these reactive groups from the molecule also results in loss of a protective effect Neither the reducing action of a compound nor the presence by themselves of either free SH amino or carboxyl groups can be correlated with the ability of a compound to prevent leukopenia when injected prior to HN2 Thus of the many compounds studied only L cysteine and to a lesser extent homocysteine and glutathione exert any protective influence

The specificity of cysteine protection is best illustrated by experiments with the optical isomers of cysteine (Table I) When HN2 is injected

TABLE I  
EFFECT OF OPTICAL ISOMERS OF CYSTEINE ON NEUTROPENIA INDUCED BY NITROGEN MUSTARD (HN2)

	Maximum decrease in neutrophils % of initial value
HN2	83
L Cysteine prior to HN2	31
D Cysteine prior to HN2	82
L Cysteine after HN2	82

into rabbits in a dose of 25 mg/kg body weight the absolute neutrophil count decreases 83% of the initial value in 4 days If 500 mg of L cysteine per kilogram body weight is administered prior to the HN2 the decrease in neutrophils is only 31% of the initial value If the same amount of D cysteine is administered prior to the HN2 no protective effect is obtained and the neutrophil count decreases 82% of the initial value

Moeschlin (personal communication) has observed that L cysteine also protects against the leukopenia induced by benzol in animals Although studies on the structural specificity required for this protection have not

ceptible to depletion of cystine than normal leukocytes. Accordingly the effect of an analog of cystine on leukemia was studied.

Potential blocking analogs were selected by determining the ability of various compounds to decrease the influx of  $S^{35}$  L-cystine into leukemic leukocytes *in vitro* (38). Leukemic leukocytes were exposed to a num-

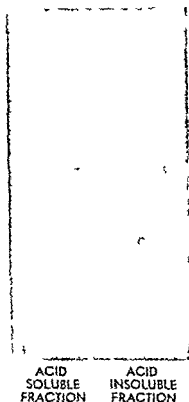


FIG. 3. Radioautographs of chromatograms obtained from trichloroacetic acid fractions of pooled leukocytes of acute monocytic leukemia after incubation with radioactive L-cystine.

ber of compounds with structures closely related to either cysteine or cystine prior to incubation with radioactive L-cystine. It was found that only a few such compounds were capable of decreasing the influx of radioactive L-cystine into the leukemic leukocytes. Many compounds closely related to cysteine were ineffective in decreasing the incorporation of  $S^{35}$  L-cystine. Even alteration of the position of the SH group within the molecule renders it ineffective (Fig. 4). The specificity of

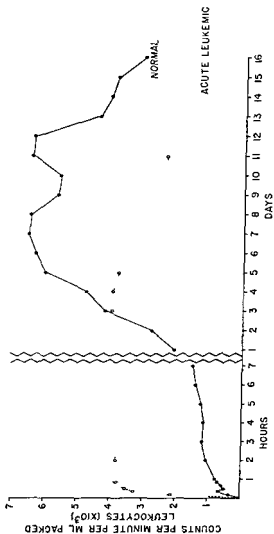


FIG. 2. Comparative incorporation of  $S^{35}$  L-cystine by normal and acute leukemic leukocytes. More radioactivity is present in the leukocytes of acute leukemia within 20 minutes than is present in normal leukocytes within 48 hours. [Reproduced with the permission of the publishers from *Blood* 9: 1082 (1954).]

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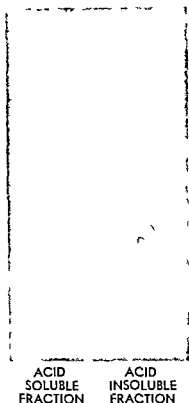


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this inhibitory effect is best illustrated by the fact that preincubation with unlabeled L cysteine decreases the influx of  $S^{35}$  L cysteine whereas preincubation with either D cysteine homocysteine or isocysteine is ineffective. This suggests that highly specific intracellular receptors are involved.

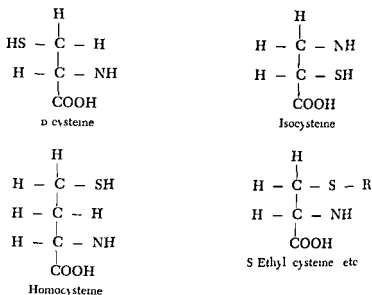


FIG. 4. These compounds are ineffective in decreasing the incorporation of radioactive L cysteine into leukemic leukocytes despite their close similarity to L cysteine.

Of the compounds studied the most effective inhibitor was selenium cystine (diseleno dialanine). This compound has a structure identical with cystine except that selenium replaces the sulfur in the molecule (Fig. 5). It is effective in low concentrations in decreasing the incorporation of radioactive cystine into leukemic leukocytes *in vitro*. This inhibitory effect is not due solely to the presence of selenium since other selenium compounds are ineffective (38). In addition to its effects *in vitro* selenium cystine was also found to inhibit tumor growth in the intact animal (36).

The effect of this analog has been studied in eight patients with leukemia most of whom were in the terminal phases of their disease and were no longer responsive to the usual chemotherapeutic agents (Table II) (37). Two patients with acute leukemia, two patients with chronic myeloid leukemia, and one patient in the terminal blastic state of chronic myeloid leukemia responded with a significant fall in leukocyte count and decrease in spleen size. One patient with blastic chronic mye



TABLE II  
RESULTS OBTAINED WITH ORAL ADMINISTRATION OF SELENIUM CYSTINE IN PATIENTS WITH LEUKEMIA

Patient	Diagnosis	Dcrease in WBC	Dcrease in spleen size	Maximum WBC count cells/mm <sup>3</sup>	Lowest WBC count † cell/mm <sup>3</sup>	Duration of therapy
1	Acute leukemia (stem cell)	+	+	50,000	24,000	57 days
2	Acute leukemia (childhood)	+	+	110,000	13,500	21 days
3	Chronic myeloid leukemia	+	+	147,000	44,000	21 days
4	Chronic myeloid leukemia	+	+	22,000	121,250	10 days
5	Blastic chronic myeloid leukemia	+	+	113,750	17,100	14 days
6	Blastic chronic myeloid leukemia	0	0	85,500	219,000	6 days
7	Acute leukemia (childhood)	0	0	161,250	78,000	7 days
8	Chronic monocytic leukemia	0	0	110,000	123,000	12 days

† Immediately prior to selenium cystine therapy

‡ During therapy with selenium cystine

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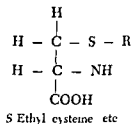
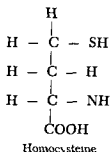
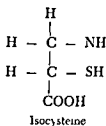
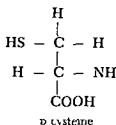


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chemotherapeutic agents and obtained only a transient drop in leukocyte count. Because of the continuing rise in leukocyte count and progressive increase in the size of the spleen and lymph nodes he was given selenium cystine orally in a dose of 100 mg daily. The leukocyte count fell from 110 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> to 13,500 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> and the size of the spleen and lymph nodes decreased. Selenium cystine was then discontinued because of toxic manifestations after which the leukocyte count again began to rise and the spleen and lymph nodes increased in size. Subsequently he was again treated with 6-mercaptopurine and although he had previously failed to respond to this drug in the same dosage he obtained a very satisfactory remission.

The response obtained with selenium cystine is not due solely to the presence of selenium in the molecule. This is illustrated by the effect of another selenium compound on a patient with acute leukemia (Fig 7). The patient was a 39 year-old woman with acute stem cell leukemia. During a 7-day period of observation the leukocyte count rose spontaneously from 214,250 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> to 390 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. On selenium cystine (100 mg per day orally) the leukocyte count gradually declined and the spleen decreased in size. The administration of selenium cystine was discontinued and she was then given an equivalent amount of diphenyl diselenide, a selenium compound which is unrelated to cystine. While receiving this selenium compound the patient's leukocyte count rose rapidly to over 500 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. When selenium cystine therapy was again instituted the leukocyte count again fell sharply.

The toxic manifestations associated with the administration of selenium cystine include severe nausea, vomiting, anorexia, glossitis and diarrhea. Moderate drowsiness may occur. Some of the selenium is excreted through the lungs and has a disagreeable pungent, garlic like odor. These side effects make it an extremely unpleasant and difficult drug to administer. No hepatic or renal damage was encountered either by ordinary function tests or at post mortem examination even in one patient who received over 5 g of selenium cystine in a 2 month period. No irreversible toxicity was encountered in any of the patients treated. Severe alopecia occurred in all patients and damage to the fingernails and toenails developed in three patients. Normal hair and fingernail growth resumed when selenium cystine was discontinued. The changes in hair and fingernails are particularly intriguing because of the known high cystine content of these appendages as well as the rapid cellular proliferation in nail beds and hair follicles. The toxic manifestations of selenium cystine are very similar to those of aminopterin and it is possible that both of these compounds may have similar sites of action.

loid leukemia one patient with acute leukemia and one patient with chronic monocytic leukemia failed to exhibit significant reduction in either the leukocyte count or spleen size. Duration of therapy may be a factor in lack of response. Thus an incomplete response (patient 4) or failure to respond (patients 6, 7 and 8) occurred when therapy was carried out for less than a 2-week period. Further data are needed to corroborate this observation.

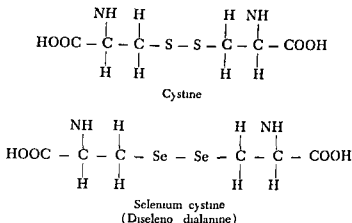


FIG. 5. Selenium cystine has the same structural configuration as cystine except that selenium replaces the sulfur in the molecule.

Although our experience with selenium cystine has been limited to these patients, several remarkable effects have become evident. Thus in patients responding to the analog the fall in leukocyte count once it occurs may be very rapid. This was most apparent in acute leukemia where the total leukocyte count decreased as much as 75 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> in 24 hours. In most of the patients the maximum rate of fall was approximately 100 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> in a 7 day period. Immature leukocytes appear to be more sensitive than mature leukocytes to selenium cystine. Thus in chronic myeloid leukemia myeloblasts and myelocytes disappear more rapidly than more mature leukocytes.

Patients refractory to other chemotherapeutic agents may respond to selenium cystine. One patient with acute leukemia (patient 2) who had become refractory to 6 mercaptopurine appeared to reacquire sensitivity to the purine analog after receiving a course of selenium cystine (Fig. 6). The patient was a 13 year old boy who had been maintained in good remission for a period of 12 months on successive courses of cortisone, aminopterin and 6 mercaptopurine. At the end of this period of time he relapsed. He was again treated with large amounts of these

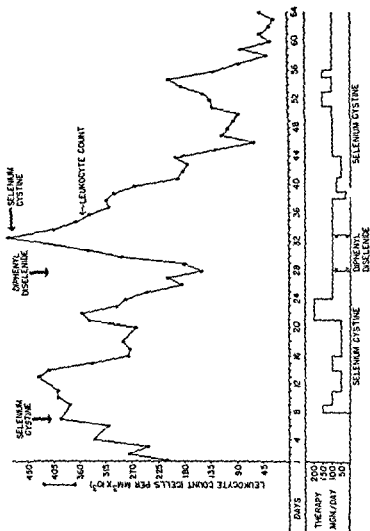


FIG. 7 The effect of selenum cystine on acute sten cell leukemia in an adult. During the initial period of observation the leukocyte count rose from 214 000 to 330 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. On selenum cystine therapy the count then fell to 140 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. When another selenum preparation diphényl diselenide was substituted for the selenum cystine the count rose rapidly to 505 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. When selenum cystine therapy was reinstituted the leukocyte count fell rapidly to 35 000 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. Note the rapid rate of fall associated with the administration of selenum cystine. [Reproduced with the permission of the publisher from Blood 11: 19 (1956).]

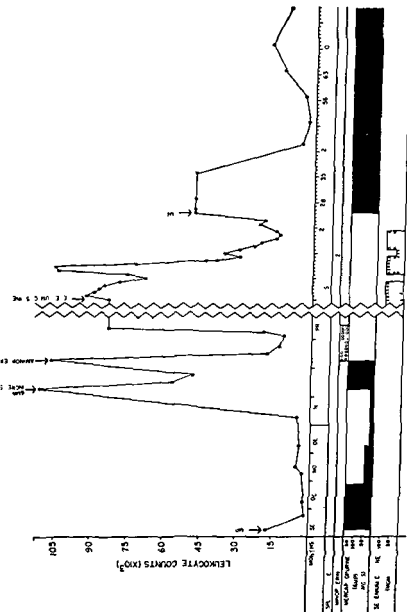


FIG 6 The effect of selenum cysteine on a patient with acute leukemia. The patient had been maintained with successive courses of cortisone, aminopterin, and 6-mercaptopurine for 12 months. He then became resistant to these chemotherapeutic agents but responded to selenum cysteine with a fall in leukocyte count and decrease in the size of lymph nodes and spleen. Subsequently he reacted sensitively to 6-mercaptopurine and achieved a satisfactory remission.

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It is apparent that small amounts of selenium cystine may have a rapid and striking effect on leukemic leukocytes. The effectiveness of this selenium compound appears to depend to a great extent on its structural relationship to cysteine and is not due solely to the presence of selenium within the molecule. The mechanism by which selenium cystine produces these profound effects is not known. It may interfere with biosynthetic mechanisms of leukocytes (1) by competitively combining with intracellular receptors for cystine (2) by inactivating enzymes essential to the metabolism of leukocytes or (3) by serving as a vehicle by virtue of its structural identity with cystine permitting selenium to enter the cell where it exerts a toxic effect.

The value if any of selenium cystine as a practical therapeutic agent in leukemia remains to be determined. We have been unable to administer sufficient selenium cystine for a long enough period of time to determine whether or not more lasting or more complete remissions might be obtained. This has been due in part to the difficulty in synthesizing the compound and in part to the severe nausea and vomiting associated with its administration. It is hoped that other analogs of cystine may be found which are less toxic or that perhaps smaller courses of selenium cystine may be effective if used in combination with other chemotherapeutic agents.

Although the clinical application remains to be determined these rather striking results of a blocking analog of cystine tend to confirm the importance of this amino acid in the metabolism of leukocytes.

### Summary and Conclusions

There is considerable evidence that abnormalities of sulfhydryl metabolism may be implicated in disorders of leukocytes. The sulfhydryl amino acid L cysteine appears to have an especially important role in the metabolism of leukocytes. These observations led to a study of the effects of a decreased availability of cysteine or cystine on leukemia. Selenium cystine which is an analog of cystine in which selenium replaces sulfur in the molecule was found to decrease the influx of radioactive cystine into leukemia leukocytes. Furthermore selenium cystine produces a rapid fall in the leukocyte count and a decrease in spleen size in some patients with leukemia. Although clinical application if any remains to be determined the results observed with this analog of cystine tend to confirm the importance of this amino acid in the metabolism of leukocytes.



We have found that this inhibitor is particularly abundant in lymphocytes both mature and immature. We would suggest that the findings that Dr Krakoff and Dr Hamilton reported on apparent reutilization of nucleic acid fragments from DNA may depend on the fact that lymphocytes are so abundant in this inhibitor. This might prevent the complete breakdown of the nucleic acid before it has an opportunity to be reutilized, as may occur in the case of the granulocytes.

Dr HENRY S. KAPLAN (San Francisco, California) I should like to comment on part of Dr Vilter's presentation.

We have previously reported a similar observation of an increase in RNA content per cell and in RNA to DNA ratio in the lymphocytes of the thymus of irradiated mice during the course of lymphoid tumor induction. This of course is an interesting finding both in his material and in ours.

I think it is important to be aware of the pitfalls in the interpretation of such a finding. It has not been very long since we graduated from the days of expressing results with regard to both DNA and RNA in terms of concentration in tissues. I think most of us are now aware that such data involving a mixture of various kinds of cells in which there may be dynamic changes in the cell population, are relatively meaningless with regard to concentration.

My point is that there may be similar artifacts in the RNA to DNA ratio in situations such as this. The finding that Dr Vilter reported is an increased RNA to DNA ratio in the marrows of acute leukemias. The marrow contains a variety of cell types. Some of them are relatively large cells with a large amount of cytoplasm and others are small cells with a minimal amount of cytoplasm.

If in the course of the development of acute leukemia the marrow is largely replaced by the immature forms these will be cells which are relatively rich in cytoplasm which have a decreased nucleus to cytoplasmic volume ratio and as a general rule in so far as we are currently aware cells that are rich in cytoplasm tend to be rich in RNA also.

We have no way of knowing at the moment just what this means but Dr Vilter's finding could well mean nothing more than the elaborate biochemical demonstration of the fact that the marrow of an acute leukemic patient is replaced by immature large cells. This would be a rather expensive way of doing what the microscope could do more cheaply.

Dr STUART C. FINCH (New Haven, Connecticut) I should like to make a comment about Dr Hamilton's paper on leukocyte survival.

Dr Daniel Kline and I did some similar studies using  $P^{32}$  instead of  $C^{14}$  in normal subjects and in patients with polycythemia vera. Our figures for blood survival corresponded very closely to those Dr Hamilton has reported. They also were very similar to those Dr Weisberger showed, with curves which were almost identical.

In the three normal patients without hematologic disease and in the seven patients with polycythemia vera the lymphocyte survival time was 8 to 9 days, and the granulocyte peripheral blood survival time was 11 to 12 days.

Dr SVEN MOESCHLIN (Solothurn, Switzerland) I have been very much interested in the work of Dr Weisberger with cysteine. We have done work in the last two years trying to protect the leukopenic effect of benzene intoxication and we tried different cell type compounds. It was shown as being completely negative in effect, but the cysteine in guinea pig experimental benzene intoxication proved to

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## General Discussion

DR M TANNENBAUM (New York New York) I should like to relate if I may some of the results which have been presented today I think much of the data can be put into some sort of a uniform plan in the light of some of the recent findings which have been made in nucleic acid synthesis and also with proteolytic enzymes

Recently a study at New York University has shown that an enzyme polynucleotide phosphorylase is responsible for the synthesis or polymerization of various derivatives from ATP that is ADP and various other purine and pyrimidine bases which are linked to a ribose sugar and pyrophosphate This enzyme also catalyzes the reverse reaction Caspersson some time ago stated that there is a relationship between nucleic acids and protein synthesis Recently Gale at the Harvey Lectures stated that he has isolated from the derivatives of nucleic acids various factors which readily promote the incorporation of amino acids into proteins

It is possible that the function of this inhibitor which was mentioned this afternoon when it disappears allows the nucleic acid to promote the incorporation of various amino acids into protein This might possibly account for the increased sulfhydryl groupings in leukemic cells since these groupings according to some authors (Fruton E L Smith) have been shown to be associated with proteolytic enzymes which are now responsible for peptide synthesis as well

So there might be some correlation between the disappearance of the inhibitor and the observed increase in respiration which may be the source of these various types of purine and pyrimidine derivatives These derivatives are the raw materials necessary for the synthesis of nucleic acids which in turn might then promote the synthesis of proteins

DR NATHANIEL B KURNICK (Long Beach, California) As Dr Vilter has pointed out there are at least two inhibitors of DNA in mammalian tissues The principal difference that I should like to stress between them is the species specificity in the one Dr Vilter has studied and the one that Henstell and Freedman have studied

This difference in species specificity permits Dr Vilter using bovine pancreas as his source of enzyme to find a reduction in inhibitor content in leukemia and at the same time permits us using human serum as the source of the enzyme to find an increase in the inhibitor in leukemic cells

It seems possible that DNAase functions both in depolymerization and in DNA synthesis Perhaps the inhibitor which we have studied functions by inhibiting the depolymerization whereas the inhibitor which Dr Vilter has reported on inhibits synthesis This then might reconcile the apparent paradox in one going up and the other going down in a leukemic cell

DR L. D. HAMILTON (New York, New York) I should like to correct a statement about DNAase. I don't think there is any biochemical evidence that DNAase can synthesize DNA. I believe we have to be cautious about saying that enzymes can work in both directions.

I also should like to comment on the RNA and the base composition of RNA and the possible differences one may encounter between normal and leukemic cells. I want to emphasize, as I did at the beginning of my talk, that there are many RNAases. There are nuclear RNAases and there are several cytoplasmic RNAases and the differences we find between the normal and the leukemic RNA may represent differences that are relative shifts in the relative type of RNA rather than something specific between the normal and leukemic cell.

As for Dr Bierman's comment, we have no mathematical formulation for the rate of cell production at this time. I am not clear as to what he meant by the fact that the white count had diminished toward the end of the experiment. Naturally during the period that we reported today on this patient with chronic lymphatic leukemia the white count, as mentioned by peripheral blood count, fluctuated and yet we saw no such fluctuation in the specific activity of the isolated purines from the cells.

DR A. S. WEISSBERGER (Cleveland, Ohio) I just want to make a brief comment about this matter of life span. The data are in good general agreement that the normal life span is somewhere in the neighborhood of 8 or 10 days and also that the lymphocytes have a very long life span.

Our data would indicate that the chronic myeloid leukemia has a life span pretty much of the same order as that of the normal leukocyte but the one thing that has not been brought out is that of the acute leukemia. Our data would indicate that the life span of acute leukemic leukocytes is extremely short compared to the others—somewhere in the neighborhood of 2 or 3 days.

inhibit the leukopenia and also the anemia to some extent so I think cysteine may prove to be a very interesting problem in the future also in leukemia as Dr Weisberger mentioned

I was very glad to hear what Dr Hamilton said on the lifetime of leukocytes and also especially for leukocytes in chronic myeloid leukemia. It may be that the longer lifetime of myelocytes in chronic myeloid leukemia is due not only to a different behavior in the lifetime of the cell in a real way but perhaps these cells can be used for the destruction of bacteria. And so because we see that they do not have the normal ability to phagocytize in the body perhaps they live longer because they are not normal cells.

Our findings in 1943 were another experimental way of studying the leukocyte ripening time. The ripening time of the granulocyte was 6 to 8 days. This fits together very well with the work of Dr Hamilton. We calculated the lifetime of the leukocyte as 2 or 3 days. It was the same as Osgood found.

The division time of the myelocytes has been estimated by other investigators to be 40 to 60 minutes in cultures. So from these one can calculate nearly exactly the total amount of leukocytes produced in one day and it is very interesting to see that all these things today fit together very well. Also the findings with isotopes in Berkeley by the Lawrence group.

DR HOWARD R. BIERMAN (Duarte, California). I want to congratulate Dr Hamilton on a very excellent paper.

The increased life span of the lymphocyte in chronic lymphocytic leukemia would seem to suggest that there was an accumulation of cells in this patient rather than excessive production.

If lymphocytes were made at or above the normal rate and were living for a longer period than normal one would expect a progressive increase in number of leukocytes in the intravascular spaces and in the tissues yet the chart demonstrated that in this patient with chronic lymphocytic leukemia the number of lymphocytes at the end of the study was the same or perhaps less than at the beginning.

DR R. W. VILTER (Cincinnati, Ohio). I really can say that I am in agreement with all the comments that have been made.

In regard to Dr Kurnick's suggestion I think it is quite true that DNAase has to do with both the breakdown and the synthesis of DNA. Whether these inhibitors which we are working with have anything to do with intracellular metabolism I don't know. Perhaps the theory that Dr Kurnick has proposed may turn out to be correct but at the present time we will have to leave it in abeyance. Nevertheless all these enzymes do control reversible reactions and both synthesize and degrade compounds.

As far as the costly method of determining RNA is concerned I also agree with that. One can look into the microscope and see that these cells do contain more RNA than the average bone marrow cell. On the other hand the purpose in performing these tests is not to determine what we can see in the microscope but something which I could not report on today because we still don't know about it and that is whether or not the relationship of the various purines and pyrimidines to RNA and to DNA in the leukemic state may be different from that in the normal state. That would be something that could not be determined except by these methods. What I have shown so far are merely preliminary results.

DR L. D. HAMILTON (New York, New York) I should like to correct a statement about DNAase. I don't think there is any biochemical evidence that DNAase can synthesize DNA. I believe we have to be cautious about saying that enzymes can work in both directions.

I also should like to comment on the RNA and the base composition of RNA and the possible differences one may encounter between normal and leukemic cells. I want to emphasize as I did at the beginning of my talk, that there are many RNAases. There are nuclear RNAases and there are several cytoplasmic RNAases and the differences we find between the normal and the leukemic RNA may represent differences that are relative shifts in the relative type of RNA rather than something specific between the normal and leukemic cell.

As for Dr Bierman's comment we have no mathematical formulation for the rate of cell production at this time. I am not clear as to what he meant by the fact that the white count had diminished toward the end of the experiment. Naturally, during the period that we reported today on this patient with chronic lymphatic leukemia the white count, as mentioned by peripheral blood count, fluctuated, and yet we saw no such fluctuation in the specific activity of the isolated purines from the cells.

DR A. S. WEI BERGER (Cleveland, Ohio) I just want to make a brief comment about this matter of life span. The data are in good general agreement that the normal life span is somewhere in the neighborhood of 8 or 10 days and also that the lymphocytes have a very long life span.

Our data would indicate that the chronic myeloid leukemia has a life span pretty much of the same order as that of the normal leukocyte but the one thing that has not been brought out is that of the acute leukemia. Our data would indicate that the life span of acute leukemic leukocytes is extremely short compared to the others—somewhere in the neighborhood of 2 or 3 days.



**Part VII**

**Further Biochemical Considerations in the Leukemias**

**Chairmen**

**C. A. Doan**  
College of Medicine  
Ohio State University  
Columbus Ohio

**Sven Moeschlin**  
Medical Department  
Burgerspital  
Solothurn Switzerland





## Immunologic Studies of Protein Synthesis in Leukemia

HOWARD C. HOPPS

School of Medicine of the University of Oklahoma  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

I must begin my presentation with an apology thus violating an established principle of effective propaganda. The studies which our group are conducting are in their initial stages—the number of cases studied is too small to draw valid conclusions and I shall draw none. On the positive side however some of the findings are provocative and suggest that our relatively new technique of approach to this problem may have considerable merit. In my discussion I shall dwell more on the method than the results and hope that you may find something applicable to your own special problems.

The principal change in plasma proteins relating to cancer so far as has been determined concerns increased levels of glycoprotein associated with albumin and all the globulin fractions. In the case of the albumin associated polysaccharide part of this appears to be due to a mixture with seromucoid.

The hypoalbuminemia so very often associated with cancer and demonstrated by a variety of methods including salt fractionation, electrophoresis, thermal coagulation, polarography, and the binding of certain dyes, does not appear to be explainable simply by dietary deficiency or by abnormal loss of protein. This hypoalbuminemia seems to be principally a quantitative effect but there may be qualitative aspects to it also.

Greenstein (1) has commented "A vast literature exists on all phases which are known of the plasma proteins and yet it is interesting to contemplate that much of these almost countless studies rest upon two analytical procedures, namely precipitation reactions involving sulfate salts and relative mobilities in an electric field (electrophoresis)."

One of the most sensitive means to detect specific proteins is an immunologic one and of course much work has been done with this method. But until the last few years immunologic techniques at our disposal were most effective only when we had relatively pure homologous antigen. The necessity for purity has been a tremendous handicap in analyzing such very complex antigenic mixtures as human plasma for example and yet it is just such complex mixtures as this that we must work with if we are to determine the presence of some new unique antigen mixed with the others—some new antigen that pertains to some specific disease e.g. leukemia. Oudin (4) in 1946 made the first serious efforts to carry out analytical antigen antibody reactions in a gel whereby because of certain physical characteristics of the system multiple antigenic components of a mixture more or less sort themselves out to react individually with their corresponding specific antibodies. Oudin coined the term "immunochemical analysis" to denote the determination without resort to previous physicochemical fractionation of the number of antigens present in a mixture and their identification. This important new development in method has opened a whole new area for immunologic study.

For those unfamiliar with this method of Oudin I shall explain briefly (with oversimplification of the problems) that if one takes a tube of narrow bore say 2 to 3 mm. and partially fills it with agar gel in which has been incorporated specific antibody and then overlays this with an antigenic mixture in solution components of the antigen will diffuse into the agar medium essentially unaffected by gravity or mechanical agitation. Somewhat analogous to the separation of protein components that can be achieved by electrophoresis or ultracentrifugation or chromatography there occurs here a separation of antigenic components because of inherent physical characteristics leading to variation in the rate of diffusion. Furthermore and this is a matter of crucial importance in this method *gradients* of concentration of the various antigenic components will be established in such a way that each will come to be in optimal proportions with the antibody that has been incorporated in the agar column. At this region of optimal proportion there will develop a narrow band of maximal antigen antibody precipitation which will be readily visible. Because (in most instances) antigen antibody precipitate is quite soluble in excess antigen as diffusion of antigen continues with increasing concentration the "back end" of the precipitate of a given band is undergoing continuous progressive solution at the same time that the "front end" of the precipitate band is being added to or "built up." Therefore as the result of a continuous succession of

zones of optimal proportion the narrow band or zone of precipitation appears as though it were slowly migrating down the tube. In the course of time (days) differences in rates of diffusion of antigenic components become more and more evident and bands of precipitate become "spread out" and distinctly separate from each other. Certain conclusions can be reached by measuring the rate of migration and density of precipitate bands but I shall not go into these aspects of the reaction.

Present interpretation of such gel precipitin reactions is based on several primary assumptions—for which there is strong support. (1) As Oudin put it, "All antigens which do not cross react will behave independently, i.e. as if each were present alone." (2) In a relatively simple diffusion system such as this there will be continuously decreasing concentration of antigen (external reactant) as one progresses from the liquid gel interface down into the gel. Since the concentration of antibody within the gel remains *relatively* constant there can be only one region of optimal proportion per antigen within the agar column at any one time. Hence there can be only one zone of antigen antibody precipitation for each antigen. From these assumptions it follows that there will not be less antigenic components in the external reactant than the number of zones of antigen antibody precipitate developing in the column.

There is a great deal that can be learned by such precipitin reactions in gels by this one dimensional tube method of Oudin. With this technique identification of individual antigenic components can be carried out in several ways the most satisfactory of which is probably accomplished by pretreating the antiserum (before its incorporation into the agar column) with the antigen in question. If reaction occurs the specific antibody will be "used up" and this will be evident by elimination of one of the zones of precipitation.

Ouchterlony (4) in 1948 reported the first serious efforts to study antigen antibody reactions in gels by a system utilizing two dimensions in which plates were employed rather than tubes. This relatively simple extension of the gel precipitation system described by Oudin greatly complicates precise analysis of just what is happening and the extent to which various factors influence the time, location and amount of antigen antibody precipitation. On the other hand it provides great advantage in certain types of study. In this system antigen and antibody, each in solution, diffuse into a neutral area of reaction, there establishing gradients of concentration which will include the zone of optimal proportions between antigen and antibody. These "equivalence points" provide for antigen antibody precipitation in the form of relatively long lines rather

than narrow bands as in the tube method of Oudin. Furthermore two samples of antigen can be set up to cross react with a single sample of antibody.

Ouchterlony in his multiple diffusion two dimensional technique used a "plate" of agar (contained within a petrie dish) in which small wells or reservoirs were made and filled with solutions of the antigen and antibody to be tested. The majority of those who have used this method have employed similar reservoirs filled with antigen or antibody in solution. One technical difficulty hard to overcome with this system is the gradual emptying of the reservoirs that occurs from diffusion so that they must be refilled during the course of the reaction. When this is done there may develop opaque lines which are artifactual—probably related to temperature changes or sudden variations in concentration of the reactants. Jennings and Malone (3) have presented a modification of Ouchterlony's method in which the reacting substances rather than being contained in solution in small reservoirs are incorporated into rather large volumes of agar and arranged so that each reactant presents a broad straight front from which it diffuses into a central area which contains only agar. As he points out this arrangement is analogous to the usual Ouchterlony plate except that as the reagents diffuse out they form gradients with rectilinear concentration isobars rather than circular ones. Jennings used a relatively small chamber the reaction area of which was an equilateral triangle 25 mm on each side. Such an area is adequate to resolve lines of reaction if the system is not very complex. In our studies however where numerous antigens and antibodies interact a larger reaction area is required if the individual lines are to be resolved. The following is a description of the technique which we have employed.

Equilateral triangular chambers were made from clear light weight plastic (Plexiglas) with inside dimensions of 120 mm on each side. The chambers were 5 mm deep. Each large chamber was then subdivided to form four smaller equilateral triangles of equal size by inserting strips of thin plastic (approximately 0.3 mm) into narrow slots countersunk into the midpoint of each side of the large chamber (see Fig. 1). Chambers were sterilized in a mixture of nitric and sulfuric acids after which they were washed with sterile distilled water.

In preparation for a test the central triangle—i.e. the area of reaction—is filled with 1% agar containing 1:5000 merthiolate and thus is allowed to solidify.<sup>1</sup> The solutions of antigen and antisera which are to be

<sup>1</sup> Methods of preparing agar etc. were essentially those which have been described in detail by Oudin (4).

used are placed in a water bath and brought to a temperature of 50. Then they are mixed with 1% agar containing 1:5000 merthiolate (at the same temperature) in proportions of two parts antiserum or antigen solution to one part agar. These mixtures are placed in the three triangular areas peripheral to the central agar filled area (area of reaction) and allowed to cool for 3 to 5 minutes after which a sterile razor blade is used to separate the agar from each of the thin dividing plastic strips and the strips are removed with thumb forceps. This is a rather critical

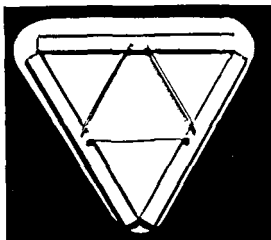


FIG. 1. Photograph of the plastic "plate" used to secure two-dimensional antigen-antibody precipitation reactions. The central equilateral triangle is 60 mm on each side as are the three peripheral triangles. The thin plastic strips which serve to divide the larger triangle into four smaller ones are removed once these four chambers are filled with agar-antigen in agar or antibody in agar.

procedure in that if the agar is too thin when the boundary strips are removed there will be intermixture; if the agar has set too hard the interface will be torn. After the strip is removed if the agar is of the proper consistency (i.e. temperature) the interface between the central and the peripheral triangles closes to a narrow relatively straight line. Thus filled the chambers are placed in airtight (sealed) containers which include a small amount of water to saturate the atmosphere and prevent drying. The containers are then placed in a constant temperature box. Although the temperature at which the system is maintained will influence the speed of reaction this is not an important consideration within that range ordinarily referred to as room temperature. The important thing is that there should be no sudden variations in tempera-

than narrow bands as in the tube method of Oudin. Furthermore two samples of antigen can be set up to cross react with a single sample of antibody.

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<sup>1</sup> Methods of preparing agar etc. were essentially those which have been described in detail by Oudin (4).

reaction. Thus equivalents with the second, more dilute antibody by virtue of a second specific determinate group might lead to the formation of a second Oudin zone." If this is true (as Jennings pointed out) it seems that it would be much less likely to occur with a rapid precipitin system such as that afforded by rabbit antiserum since in such a case precipitates may be produced within a few minutes whereas horse anti-toxin systems may require several hours to accomplish the same results.

It would be enormously difficult to express precisely mathematically the relationship of those many factors which interact to influence the

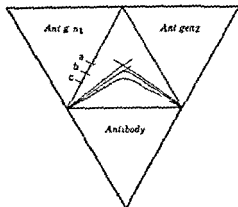


FIG. 2. This schematic representation of precipitin reaction shows (a) independent reactions of antigen<sub>1</sub> and antigen<sub>2</sub> at the point of intersection indicating "nonidentity" (b) partial fusion of the precipitate formed by antigen<sub>1</sub> and antigen<sub>2</sub> (with antibody) at the point of intersection, indicating partial identity (c) complete fusion of the precipitate formed by antigen<sub>1</sub> and antigen<sub>2</sub> (with antibody) at the point of intersection indicating identity.

zone of precipitation and its density over a given time even if the exact concentration, the physical characteristics of all the reacting antibodies and the amount and nature of the nonreacting components were known. Of course we don't have this information in complex antigenic mixtures such as blood plasma. Very fortunately we don't have to express mathematically the reaction we can observe in order to gain much useful information. Without knowing exactly why we can get a good idea of the number of antigen-antibody systems involved and often we can achieve a clear differentiation between those antigens which are in common and those which are not. This method of Ouchterlony then provides a rather simple screening process by which means we may be able to identify unique antigenic components. Once these are evident

ture In our laboratory we have fashioned a metal box with inner lining on all sides of approximately 4 inch Fiberglas batting and the plates are kept in there Because of the relatively large size of our reacting chamber (an equilateral triangle 60 mm on each side) and in consideration of the temperature of reaction (approximately 20 ) it requires five weeks for sufficient diffusion to occur so that the plates can be evaluated At the end of this time the results are recorded photographically

The important difference between the one dimensional and the two-dimensional systems which I have described is that in the latter both the antigen and antibody are diffusing into a "neutral zone" whereas in the former (Oudin technique) the diffusion of one reactant (usually antigen) is into a region which contains a relatively fixed concentration of the other reactant (usually antibody) When *both* reactants are diffusing as in the plate method the point where the two reactants meet at optimal proportions is such that despite the passage of time the concentration of these reactants will remain in essentially the same *proportion* at the point where they first meet Thus individual points of precipitation remain essentially stationary with time Continued diffusion further out toward the center of the reaction area leads to the formation then of a succession of new points of maximal precipitation which form a *line* of precipitation

In a system where two samples of antigen are being compared in their reaction with a single antiserum our concern is with the behavior of lines of antigen antibody precipitate at their points of intersection Depending on this behavior we can classify the antigens as identical as closely related or as quite different (see Fig 2)

Wilson and Pringle (5) in their study on the interpretation of the Ouchterlony precipitin test, demonstrated that under ordinary conditions specific precipitates in the agar plate do not interfere with the free diffusion of unrelated antigens and antibodies They found further that identical antigens do always give rise to fusion of their specific precipitates Unrelated antigens occasionally gave fusion or partial intersection depending on relative concentration of the two precipitin systems According to their study false negative reactions may occur but not false positive reactions Jennings (2) however in a system employing whole immune horse serum and crude filtrate from tetanus cultures demonstrated what he believed to be formation of two zones by one antigen He hypothesized that "antigen after reacting with one antibody for a specific determinate group might still diffuse to form a gradient of concentrations beyond the line of visible precipitate from the first



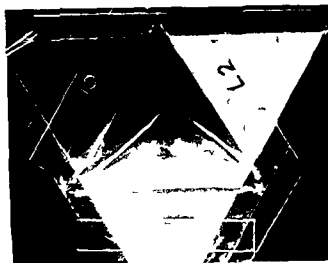


FIG 4 AC1 and C1 as in Fig 3 L2 = chronic granulocytic leukemic plasma. The broad band like zones of precipitate conceal multiple individual lines of precipitate as is indicated on the C1 side.

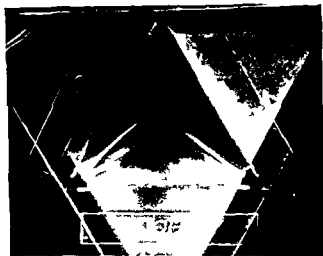


FIG 5 AC1 and C1 as in Fig 3 L3 = chronic lymphocytic leukemic plasma. Note the shift (to left of midline) of the region of intersection which could be confused with a reaction of partial identity. Such a shift indicates a significant difference in concentration of the antigenic components involved (C1 and L3). Here it appears that at least two antigenic components are of increased concentration in the leukemic plasma (L3). Note the lines of precipitate which have extended beyond the "area of reaction" down into the antibody gel region on the L3 side.

we can apply procedures of absorption to test which specific fractions (prepared by salting out procedures electrophoresis chromatography etc ) are the ones in question

Figures 3 through 8 are photographs of antigen antibody precipitation in agar according to the method which has been described In this series high titer rabbit antiserum (A ) was produced to normal human plasma (C1) and plasma from patients with subacute chronic monocytic

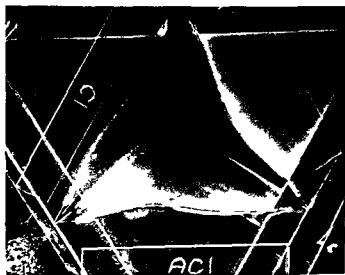


FIG 3 AC1 = rabbit antiserum (to normal human plasma) C1 = normal human plasma L1 = subacute chronic monocytic leukemia plasma Note at least six distinct linear zones of precipitate A reaction of partial identity is indicated by ▼

leukemia (L1) chronic granulocytic leukemia (L2) chronic lymphocytic leukemia (L3) chronic granulocytic leukemia (L4) and acute monocytic leukemia (L5) None of these patients had received specific therapy for their leukemia prior to the time that the plasma sample was obtained

Rabbits were sensitized to the human plasma by multiple intramuscular "depot" injections of plasma adsorbed on  $Al(OH)_3$  in addition to intravenous intraperitoneal subcutaneous and intradermal injections of plasma

Aliquot samples of antisera and plasma were frozen in plastic tubes and maintained at  $-20$  until used The significance of the reactions depicted is given in the legends which accompany each of the figures

### Conclusions

I shall end much as I began—emphasizing that our study is in its early stages and that no firm conclusions can be drawn except perhaps that immunologic methods especially those in which precipitin reactions are developed in solid media seem to have an important application in the study of leukemia

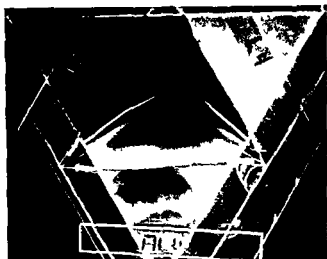


FIG 8 C1 as in Fig 3 L4 = chronic granulocytic leukemia plasma AL4 = rabbit antiserum against L4 plasma Intersections of C1-AL4 and L4-AL4 indicate identity however broad zones of precipitate may conceal reactions of "partial identity" Variations in concentration of antigenic components are indicated by a shift (to right) of some points of intersection and by a variation in width of precipitin zones

### Acknowledgments

I am pleased to acknowledge the very active collaboration of three senior medical students who have been working with me on these immunologic studies of protein synthesis in leukemia—Keith Klopfenstein Anthony Lynn and William Parker

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FIG 6 AC1 and C1 as in Fig 3 L5 = acute monocytic leukemic plasma. Here linear zones of antigen-antibody precipitate have extended well into the antibody gel region. Though five weeks was allowed for reaction the two lines of precipitation farthest from the antibody source (AC1) have not intersected sufficiently to allow analysis. One questionable reaction of partial identity may be seen.

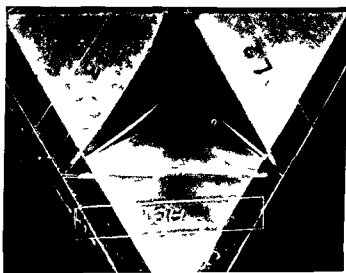


FIG 7 AC1 as in Fig 3 L2 = chronic granulocytic leukemic plasma. L3 = chronic lymphocytic leukemic plasma. The two leukemic plasma antigens give reactions of identity against antiserum to normal plasma.

## Biochemical and Enzymatic Characteristics of Normal and Leukemic Leukocytes (with Particular Reference to Leukocyte Alkaline Phosphatase)<sup>1</sup>

WILLIAM N. VALENTINE JAMES H. FOLLETTE  
DAVID H. SOLOMON and JOHN REYNOLDS

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Los Angeles California

Biochemical patterns in leukocytes from normal and leukemic subjects have now been studied from many different standpoints. Glycolysis and respiration in intact cell and fortified homogenate systems, the location of leukocyte histamine, the enzymatic activities of  $\beta$  glucuronidase, transaminase, acid and alkaline phosphatase, esterase, and lipase, sulfhydryl constituents, cell amino acid levels, glycogen, and many other nonenzymatic and enzymatic components of cells have been measured and analyzed by investigators in many areas. It will not be the province of this report to review this broad subject or to document bibliographically the numerous investigations which have contributed to our knowledge of leukocyte constitution and metabolism. Rather it will be confined to a discussion of leukocyte alkaline phosphatase with particular though not exclusive reference to its variations in leukemic and normal cells and its rather remarkable lability under the impact of disease. The data reported represent largely the experiences of our laboratory over the last few years with quantitative studies of this intracellular enzyme. For more comprehensive bibliographical reviews summarizing earlier work in this area, including the development of the histochemical alkaline phosphatase technique by Gomori (3), its important applications in hematology by Wachstein (10) and others (2, 6), the work of

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<sup>1</sup> The work reported here has been supported by grants from Parke Davis and Company, the United States Public Health Service, and the Gladys F. Bowyer Fund.

Haight and Rossiter (4) and the recent extensive studies by Moloney and his co workers (5-11) the reader is referred to the original reports and to the comprehensive bibliographic material contained therein.

In any general consideration of leukocyte biochemical constitution at least two important principles must be kept in mind. First *morphologically different* leukocyte types such as the polymorphonuclear leukocyte and the lymphocyte can be expected to have different biochemical profiles in the *normal* subject by virtue of their inherent differences in structure and function. Second *morphologically identical* cell types may have different biochemical activities in different disease states. The latter situation is readily apparent in the case of leukocyte alkaline phosphatase.

Leukocyte alkaline phosphatase is a phosphomonoesterase with pH optimum approximating 9.9 in human leukocytes. In leukocytes it shares the properties of alkaline phosphatase as found ubiquitously in many tissues of the body requiring a metal activator such as  $Mg^{++}$  and being markedly inhibited by certain sulfhydryl compounds such as cysteine and glutathione. Its level in the leukocytes bears no discernible relationship to serum alkaline phosphatase and it appears to be a cytoplasmic component. In the studies here reported its activity has been measured in incubation systems employing for the most part sodium  $\beta$  glycerophosphate as substrate, saponin as a membrane damaging agent facilitating enzyme substrate contact, a buffered media at pH 9.9, a 1 hour incubation at 37° and a final spectrophotometric measurement of inorganic phosphorus liberated.

Initial studies have shown the following features of alkaline phosphatase activity in separated human leukocytes prepared as previously described. (1) Expressed as milligrams of phosphorus liberated per hour per  $10^{10}$  cells from substrate under the incubation conditions given above, unit cell leukocyte phosphatase is often increased severalfold in a wide variety of disease states. It is for example markedly increased in such diverse pathologic states as infection, trauma, diabetic acidosis, acute gout, intestinal hemorrhage, cerebral vascular accidents, acute urinary retention, and myocardial infarction (7-9). These may have multiple features in common but an obvious common denominator is that in all an increase in pituitary-adrenal activity would be expected. (2) In man alkaline phosphatase activity is low or absent in blast cells and mononuclear leukocytes (1, 10, 11). In many of the conditions where unit leukocyte activity is high, some degree of polymorphonuclear leukocytosis pertains. The elevations in phosphatase activity, however, which are often three or fourfold above normal values and sometimes

much greater cannot be explained in terms of changes in the differential formula of the cell population analyzed (3) The granulocytes of chronic myelocytic leukemia characteristically exhibit low alkaline phosphatase activity (8, 11) and this is the usual situation over wide variations in the differential formula of cell populations analyzed in this disease including those in which the leukocytes are almost exclusively mature and the total leukocyte count temporarily approximates the normal range On the other hand in polycythemia rubra vera with leukemoid features and morphological cell populations mimicking those of chronic myelocytic leukemia and in many nonleukemic myeloproliferative states with circulating cell spectra simulating chronic myelocytic leukemia unit leukocyte phosphatase is often well above the normal range and many fold greater than that found in this form of leukemia This points up a difference not attributable to maturity or cell type In one group of seventeen cases of polycythemia vera with leukemoid features of this type average values were twentyfold greater than those in a series of chronic myelocytic leukemia (8) (4) For reasons which are not clear most cases of *uncomplicated* but active rheumatoid arthritis many cases of *uncomplicated* rheumatic fever and cases of disseminated lupus erythematosus fail to show elevated leukocyte alkaline phosphatase values (9) This would appear to indicate that active disease does not universally evoke the leukocyte phosphatase elevation and that for some reason this failure is evident in many cases of active so called collagen diseases Figure 1 summarizes data bearing on many of the points made above

The findings of marked elevations in this intracellular enzyme in diverse clinical disease states naturally raised the question of whether increased adrenal corticosteroid activity might not be at least one of the responsible mediators of the phenomenon This has indeed been found to be the case (9 also our unpublished data manuscript in preparation) Substantial doses of ACTH or 17 OH corticosteroids administered over a 72 hour period result in an average approximately threefold increase in unit leukocyte phosphatase activity sometimes somewhat less and sometimes somewhat more This applies when these agents are administered to subjects whose pretreatment phosphatase values are within the normal range and not necessarily in pathologic states where levels are already substantially elevated In the latter situations a further response to exogenous ACTH or 17 OH corticosteroids may or may not occur In an occasional ostensibly normal subject this customary response has not been evoked a fact which is unexplained but possibly related to anomalies of individual response inadequate blood levels or

picture Prior to therapy unit leukocyte alkaline phosphatase activity was very low and no elevation was elicited by either ACTH or hydrocortisone The patient was placed on Myleran and has obtained a complete and unusually long remission which has now persisted without any

TABLE I

A COMPARISON OF THE EFFECT OF ACTH HYDROCORTISONE AND OTHER AGENTS ON LEUKOCYTE ALKALINE PHOSPHATASE ACTIVITY  
(The values given are averages)

Agent	Dosage schedule	Alkaline phosphatase before Rx	Alkaline phosphatase after 72 hr of Rx
Gel alone	1 ml q 8 hr $\times$ 9 IM	28.0	38.5
ACTH gel	10-20 units q 8 hr $\times$ 9 IM	30.0	64.0
ACTH gel	30-40 units q 8 hr $\times$ 9 IM	23.5	60.0
H <sub>2</sub> drocortisone	40-50 mg q 8 hr $\times$ 9 PO	35.0	58.0
H <sub>2</sub> drocortisone	60-70 mg q 8 hr $\times$ 9 PO	24.5	57.5
DOCA	65 mg q 8 hr $\times$ 9 IM	25.5	25.0
Ascorbic acid	500 mg q 12 hr $\times$ 6 IM	30.0	27.0

Expressed as milligrams of phosphorus liberated per hour by  $10^{10}$  leukocytes from the substrate sodium  $\beta$  glycerophosphate at 37

TABLE II

EFFECT OF ACTH GEL ON LEUKOCYTE ALKALINE PHOSPHATASE ACTIVITY† IN THREE SUBJECTS WITH ADDISON'S DISEASE AND THREE SUBJECTS WITH PANHYPOPITUITARISM

Disease	Case number	Alkaline phosphatase† before Rx	Alkaline phosphatase† after 24 hr of Rx	Alkaline phosphatase† after 72 hr of Rx
Addison's disease	1	18.0	25.0	20.0
	2	22.5	31.0	32.0
	3	48.5	37.5	38.0
	Average	29.0	31.2	30.0
Panhypopituitarism	1	22.5	44.0	82.5
	2	28.0	71.0	104.0
	3	37.0	44.0	106.0
	Average	29.2	53.0	97.5

Administered in amount of 40 units intramuscularly every 8 hours for 72 hours

† Expressed as milligrams of phosphorus liberated per hour by  $10^{10}$  leukocytes from the substrate sodium  $\beta$  glycerophosphate at 37



TABLE III  
EFFECT OF ACTH GEL AND HYDROCORTISONE ON LEUKOCYTE ALKALINE PHOSPHATASE ACTIVITY IN FIVE SUBJECTS WITH CHRONIC MYELOCYTIC LEUKEMIA AS COMPARED WITH SEVEN NONLEUKEMIC SUBJECTS†  
(Values given are averages)

Subjects	Dosage schedule	Alkaline phosphatase before Rx	Alkaline phosphatase after 24 hr of Rx	Alkaline phosphatase after 72 hr of Rx	Alkaline phosphatase 2-7 days after Rx stopped
Nonleukemic	ACTH gel 40 units q 8 hr	60	42.0	74.0	23.0
Chronic myelocytic leukemia	IM for 72 hr	80	9.5	7.5	7.0
Nonleukemic	Hydrocortisone 60-70 mg q 8 hr	26.0	38.0	50.0	33.0
Chronic myelocytic leukemia	PO for 72 hr	5.0	6.5	7.5	5.0

Expressed as milligrams of phosphorus liberated per hour by  $10^{10}$  leukocytes from the substrate sodium  $\beta$ -glycerophosphate at 37

† Data on two exceptional cases of chronic myelocytic leukemia in remission discussed fully in text are not included in the above compilation

picture Prior to therapy unit leukocyte alkaline phosphatase activity was very low and no elevation was elicited by either ACTH or hydrocortisone The patient was placed on Myleran and has obtained a complete and unusually long remission which has now persisted without any

TABLE I  
A COMPARISON OF THE EFFECT OF ACTH HYDROCORTISONE AND OTHER AGENTS ON  
LEUKOCYTE ALKALINE PHOSPHATASE ACTIVITY  
(The values given are averages)

Agent	Dosage schedule	Alkaline phosphatase before Rx	Alkaline phosphatase* after 72 hr of Rx
Gel alone	1 ml q 8 hr $\times$ 9 I M	28 0	38.5
ACTH gel	10-20 units q 8 hr $\times$ 9 I M	30 0	64 0
ACTH gel	30-40 units q 8 hr $\times$ 9 I M	23 5	80 0
Hydrocortisone	40-50 mg q 8 hr $\times$ 9 P O	35 0	58 0
Hydrocortisone	60-70 mg q 8 hr $\times$ 9 P O	24 5	57 5
DOCA	6 5 mg q 8 hr $\times$ 9 I M	25 5	25 0
Ascorbic acid	500 mg q 12 hr $\times$ 6 I M	30 0	27 0

Expressed as milligrams of phosphorus liberated per hour by  $10^{10}$  leukocytes from the substrate sodium  $\beta$  glycerophosphate at 37

TABLE II  
EFFECT OF ACTH GEL ON LEUKOCYTE ALKALINE PHOSPHATASE ACTIVITY† IN  
THREE SUBJECTS WITH ADDISON'S DISEASE AND THREE SUBJECTS WITH  
PANHYPOPITUITARISM

Disease	Case number	Alkaline phosphatase† before Rx	Alkaline phosphatase† after 24 hr of Rx	Alkaline phosphatase† after 72 hr of Rx
Addison's disease	1	16 0	25 0	20 0
	2	22.5	31 0	32 0
	3	48 5	37 5	38 0
	Average	29 0	31 2	30 0
Panhypopituitarism	1	22 5	44 0	82 5
	2	28 0	71 0	104 0
	3	37 0	44 0	106 0
	Average	29 2	53 0	97 5

Administered in amount of 40 units intramuscularly every 8 hours for 72 hours  
† Expressed as milligrams of phosphorus liberated per hour by  $10^{10}$  leukocytes from the substrate sodium  $\beta$  glycerophosphate at 37

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form of therapy for eighteen months. The spleen is impalpable, the myeloid/erythroid ratio in bone marrow normal, and the total and differential leukocyte count normal with basophils now only 1 to 2%. It is not known whether this represents one of the rare spontaneous remissions superimposed on a therapeutic remission or not. In any event, unit cell phosphatase activity has returned to normal and refractoriness to ACTH and hydrocortisone is no longer present. It should be emphasized again at this juncture that this is not the usual experience in therapeutic remission but rather the exception. The data, however, raise some interesting philosophical questions. They indicate that an occasional individual early in the course of the disease and in the presence of very good remissions may show a reversion to normal phosphatase pattern and normal responsiveness to ACTH and 17 OH corticosteroids. It is not known whether leukemia of this type originates as some over all metabolic transformation or whether loci of abnormal leukemic cells first appear and then overgrow and suppress normal cell potential. If the situation involves over all transformation, the data in these two cases indicate that an occasional essentially complete remission may be accompanied by a more normal metabolic pattern at least in respect to the phosphatase aberration. If the two population or "two cell line ages" hypothesis is adopted, the data suggest that an occasional exceptional remission may be accompanied by reassertion of the normal cell lineage temporarily. If this were the case, reversion of the phosphatase pattern would be due actually to the fact that during the remission normal and not leukemic cells were being analyzed. The failure to obtain reversion in most therapeutic remissions does not favor either possibility since remission might be associated in most instances not with reascendency of the hypothetical normal cell line but only by partial repression of the leukemic strain. These speculations are of course of a philosophical nature at the moment and the authors express no brief for either hypothesis in terms of existent data. It is hoped that experimental situations may be found to test these two possibilities more satisfactorily and that biochemical differences between "normal and leukemic" cells offer some hope that this may ultimately be susceptible to testing.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge the technical assistance of Mr Peter Sugarman, Mrs Estelle Wong, Mrs Carol Levin, and Miss Elaine Levi in the investigations reported.

## Metabolism of Folic Acid and Citrovorum Factor in Leukemic Cells<sup>1</sup>

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The treatment of acute leukemia with folic acid antagonists has severe limitations: two thirds of the children so treated do not develop complete remissions; the great majority of adults fail to respond; and all patients whose disease is originally sensitive to these agents ultimately relapse despite continuance of therapy.

The folic acid antagonists are thought to interfere with folic acid and citrovorum factor (CF) metabolism at at least three sites: the conversion of conjugated folic acid to available folic acid; the conversion of folic acid to CF; and the conversion of CF to a postulated more active form. In so doing, the folic acid antagonists presumably inhibit cell growth by blocking utilization of the one carbon fragments necessary for synthesis of nucleic acids and such amino acids as methionine and serine.

Swendseid *et al.* (9) reported an increase in the content of CF in leukemic cells which they felt was correlated with the degree of cell immaturity; the highest values being found in acute leukemia. No correlation was made between the CF content and the later response of these patients to folic acid antagonists.

Broquist *et al.* (2) found that a mutant strain of *S. faecalis* resistant to amethopterin (4-amino-10-methylpteroylglutamic acid) (Methotrexate) was far more efficient in forming CF from folic acid than was the wild

<sup>1</sup> These studies were supported by research grants C1589 and C679 from the National Cancer Institute of the National Institutes of Health, Public Health Service, and institutional grants from the American Cancer Society, the Darron Runyon Memorial Fund for Cancer Research, the Lasker Foundation, and the Black-Stein Foundation.



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strain. Work by Hutchison on the liberation of CF and the formation of CF from folic acid by leukemic mouse spleen cells (6) indicated that an amethopterin sensitive strain (line I) was slightly more effective than the resistant strain (line I/A) in the formation of CF from folic acid. Line I/A leukemic cells however always contained more free CF prior to incubation *in vitro* and during the first 5½ hours of incubation. Amethopterin had less effect on both these enzymatic reactions in line I/A. Spleens from line I leukemia contained three times the amount and spleens from line I/A leukemia four times the amount of total CF found in the normal mouse spleens (this was calculated as millimicrograms of CF per milligram dry weight).

Clinical sensitivity to folic acid antagonists in acute leukemia may indicate a greater dependence on CF for growth in the sensitive leukemic leukocytes than in the resistant cell or normal leukocytes. This could be a reflection of inability to form CF from folic acid adequately, inability to free CF from the conjugated form, or inability to utilize the CF properly when present. If this greater need for CF exists, it might be possible to demonstrate that a leukemic patient sensitive to the folic acid antagonists would excrete a lower percentage of a given dose of CF than would a resistant patient. Investigation of the serum levels and urinary excretion of amethopterin and CF after administration of these compounds to patients with acute leukemia showed no difference however between the values obtained with those subsequently sensitive to amethopterin therapy and those resistant to it (Ellison, Murphy, Hutchison and Burchenal, unpublished observations). It was thought therefore that study of the development of resistance in human acute leukemia should involve investigation of intracellular rather than extracellular factors.

This report will deal primarily with studies of the CF content of leukemic and normal leukocytes. Mention will be made of the effects thereupon of amethopterin *in vivo* and the rate of liberation of free CF from the conjugated form. The finding of thymidine in the incubated cell suspensions will also be discussed.

## Methods

In the work to be reported, all glassware which came in contact with the leukocytes had been previously siliconed. We routinely drew 20 ml of blood. Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid was used as anticoagulant and dextran was employed to sediment the erythrocytes rapidly. After the mixture stood at room temperature for 2 to 3 minutes, all procedures were carried out in the cold. After the erythrocytes sedimented (about



45 minutes) the plasma and white cell mixture was removed and centrifuged lightly. The sedimented leukocytes were resuspended in 1% acetate buffer pH 4.5 made up in isotonic saline. At this pH CF conjugase activity is maximal (9). Cell counts were done on the white cell suspension so that CF could be expressed as the amount per cell. Aliquots of the suspension were incubated for variable periods of time at 37° in the presence of ascorbic acid. Twenty hours was considered (by analogy with bacterial studies) the necessary incubation period for the liberation of the total amount of CF. Further enzymatic action was then prevented by boiling. This also served to lyse the leukocytes. After the addition of bicarbonate to produce a pH of 7.0 and dilution of the sample it was autoclaved (7) and centrifuged. Assays were done on the supernatant.

Assays for CF were done with *Pedococcus cerevisiae* (5). The sample was further diluted to at least a tenfold dilution of the original white cell suspension to prevent inhibition of the assay organism by dextran or EDTA. With this assay as little as 0.1 m $\mu$  of CF per milliliter of sample or 1 m $\mu$  of CF per milliliter of white cell suspension could be determined. The lower limits of the determination therefore depended on the white blood cells available as well as on the assay procedure. Thus with a cell count in the suspension of 20 000/mm<sup>3</sup> we could measure a minimum of 50 m $\mu$   $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> per single leukocyte but with a count of 100 000 as little as 10 m $\mu$   $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> per leukocyte could be determined.

In cases where the patient had been receiving amethopterin or this substance had been added *in vitro* to the cell suspension the assay was performed with a mutant *P. cerevisiae* resistant to amethopterin. The dose response curve of this organism with CF is identical to that of the wild strain. The response of the sensitive and resistant organisms to thymidine was found to differ however. This will be discussed later.

Thymidine assays on the incubated cell suspensions were also performed microbiologically with *L. arabinosus* in a sulfanilamide medium. Under these conditions CF in the amounts present in the cells does not inhibit or enhance the growth of the organism. The lower limit of the assay was 10  $\mu$  of thymidine per milliliter of cell suspension when a minimal dilution of 1:10 was used.

## Results

All results to be presented were obtained in adults. All CF values mentioned are in terms of m $\mu$   $\times$  10<sup>3</sup> per single leukocyte. In references to CF in this report the amount in the cells has been referred to a syn

thetic leucovorin standard. The results would have to be halved to give the actual natural CF content since the synthetic material is a racemic mixture.

Figure 1 shows the data obtained on total CF content. The closed circles indicate those patients with no recent amethopterin therapy; the open circles those receiving amethopterin. Considering first only the former, the range in the normals was 50 to 200. Patients with chronic lymphatic leukemia in relapse had CF values in the same range with

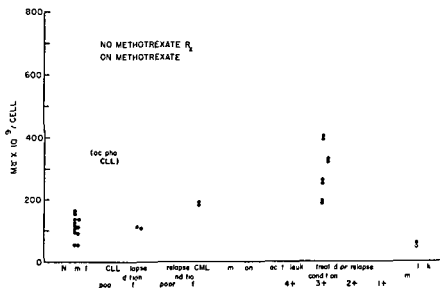


FIG 1 Total CF content of human leukocytes

the exception of one patient who was in an acute phase morphologically and clinically and died several days later. Patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia in relapse and one chronic granulocytic leukemia in remission also had similar levels. Three assays on two patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia who were in very poor condition but were not in a blastic phase were elevated. We have attempted to subdivide the group with acute leukemia in relapse or untreated on the basis of clinical condition at the time of the test. 4+ indicates those who died within 2 weeks of the test; 3+ those who appeared equally ill but did not die in that period; and 2+ and 1+ those who were in better condition clinically. There was no difference among the first three of these groups. They ranged from 90 to 800. The fourth group was not large enough to compare. The levels in patients in complete hema-

tological and clinical remission resembled the normals. In the two cases where assays were obtained before and during remission the remission levels were lower.

Those values obtained on patients receiving amethopterin and assayed on the resistant organism were all quite low. It was thought that this might represent an *in vivo* effect of the drug such as occurred in leukemic mouse spleens.

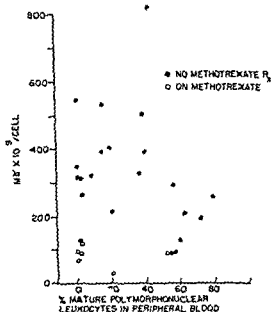


Fig. 2. Total CF content of leukocytes of acute leukemia in relapse or untreated.

Figure 2 shows an attempt to correlate the apparent level of total CF in acute leukemia in relapse or untreated with the per cent of mature polys in the peripheral blood. There was no correlation. There was also no correlation between the total CF and the peripheral white count or the white count in the cell suspension used or the subsequent development of remission or the duration of life after the time the test was performed. As already noted there was no correlation between the total CF and the clinical condition when the patient was in relapse.

Figure 3 shows typical curves illustrating the rate of liberation of CF from the conjugated form *in vitro*. The rate difference noted in chronic lymphatic leukemia has been seen in all cases studied. We have three

other curves similar to the one shown on a normal subject (representing two individuals)

Recently we noted that the assays gave a peculiar pattern with the various dilutions of sample used. When read from the standard CF curve the most dilute sample almost always seemed to contain more

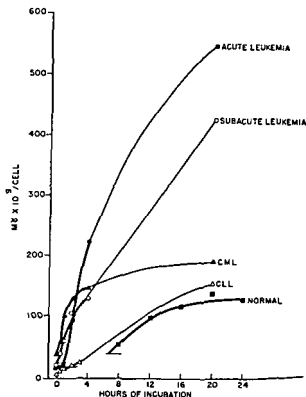


FIG 3 Liberation of free CF by human leukocytes

CF than did the other three of the assay. We therefore looked for some other substance which might be acting as a growth factor for *P. cerevisiae*. By assay with *L. arabinosus* in a sulfanilamide medium thymidine was identified. The presence of this substance was verified chromatographically. Figures 4 and 5 show the appearance of the dose response curves when various mixtures of thymidine and CF are used in the standard assay with *P. cerevisiae*. Thymidine assays have been run on some of the available samples. Thymidine was not detectable in cell suspensions incubated less than 12 hours. Thymidine levels of 120 to

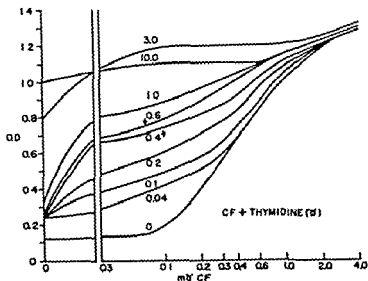


FIG. 4. The sparing effect of thymidine on the response of *Pedicoccus cerevisiae* to citrovorum factor

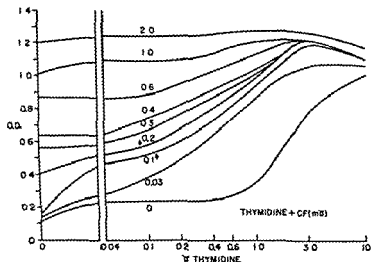


FIG. 5. The sparing effect of citrovorum factor on the response of *Pedicoccus cerevisiae* to thymidine

550  $\mu$   $\times 10^3$  per cell were found in cell suspensions incubated 20 hours. In the relatively few assays done there was no obvious correlation between thymidine level and the apparent CF activity of the cells.

We then found that although the amethopterin sensitive and resistant *P. cerevisiae* strains show the same response to CF the resistant strain does not respond to thymidine (Fig. 6). This may in part account for the uniformly low apparent values for CF found in patients who had been receiving amethopterin and whose assay therefore was done with the resistant strain. Accordingly, reassays were done on the cell suspen-

TABLE I  
TOTAL APPARENT CF CONTENT OF HUMAN LEUKOCYTES

Clinical status	Assay organism	
	<i>P. cerevisiae</i>	<i>P. cerevisiae</i> /A
Normal	208	104
	126	51
	179	70
	181	94
Hodgkins disease with infection	108	32
Chronic granulocytic leukemia	312	96
	172	40
Acute leukemia	212	187
	193	100
	390	139
	676	227
	559	287

sions of several people who had not received the antimetabolite. Figure 7 shows the results with the cells from a patient with chronic granulocytic leukemia in the terminal phase and indicates that in the cells that had been incubated 20 hours only one third of the apparent CF value actually represented CF. Most other reassays showed similar results (Table I). Assays were done on one individual employing all three organisms. From these results we attempted to estimate the thymidine content using the checkerboard graphs (Figs. 4 and 5). The amount of thymidine found by this calculation came to one half of that actually found with *L. arabinosus* assay. This may indicate the presence of substances other than thymidine in the incubated cell suspensions which stimulate the growth of *L. arabinosus*.

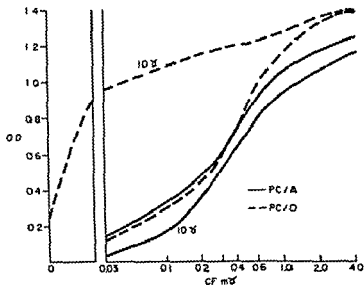


FIG 6 The response to citrovorum factor of methotrexate sensitive and resistant strains of *Pedicoccus cerevisiae* in the presence and absence of 10% of thymidine

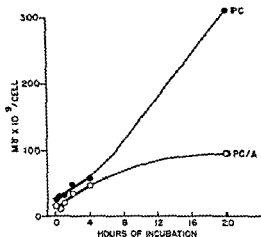


FIG 7 Liberation of free CF by human leukocytes. One third of the apparent CF value actually represents CF

## Discussion

Although expressed in different terms our data on apparent CF content were in general agreement with those of Swendseid and her co-workers. Probably the correlation which she observed between cell type and CF activity was due to the absence in her series of cases of acute leukemia where large numbers of mature cells were present. Since the same conditions of incubation were used with the two exceptions of addition of ascorbic acid and of autoclaving after incubation it also seems probable that the same mixture of growth substances was being measured but was called CF.

Despite the problems of identification our data indicated however that in many adults with acute leukemia and in some acutely ill with chronic granulocytic or lymphatic leukemia the circulating leukocytes contained more than the normal amount of substances which promoted the growth of *P. cerevisiae*. Part of this is CF and part is thymidine. Perhaps some other as yet unidentified substances are present. Which of these is in fact elevated in the leukocytes cannot be ascertained from the data we now have.

Studies of growth factors for *S. faecalis* and *P. cerevisiae* in marine algae and in lichens (1, 3, 4, 8) indicate that treatment of such organisms with chicken pancreas or hog kidney homogenates caused the release of at least twelve factors. These included pteroyltriglutamic acid, pteroyldiglutamic acid, N<sup>10</sup> formylpteronic acid, N<sup>10</sup> formylfolic acid, folic acid (CF), thymidine, folic acid, N<sup>5</sup> formyltetrahydrotriglutamic acid and N formyltetrahydrodiglutamic acid. The last two substances (as well as another unidentified compound) can stimulate the growth of *P. cerevisiae* and are the first reported compounds other than CF and thymidine able to do so.

The conditions used in treating the leukocytes undoubtedly caused autolysis of the cells accounting for the presence of thymidine. Detectable amounts of thymidine were not present in cell suspensions incubated for less than 12 hours. There is no reason to connect the appearance of thymidine with the reactions involved in the liberation of CF from the conjugated form.

Despite the fact that we do not know what substance caused the increase in the apparent CF activity it is of interest that the presence of an increased amount of growth factor for *P. cerevisiae* did not depend merely on the presence of blast cells. This might mean that the entire series of granulocytes mature and immature in such patients is abnormal.



# Summary

1 The total CF content of human leukocytes was studied. After incubation of the leukocytes to convert all conjugated CF to the free form assay with *P. cerevisiae* indicated greater than normal apparent CF activity in the leukocytes in many of the cases of acute leukemia. This was also found in some terminal cases of chronic granulocytic and lymphatic leukemia.

2 The increase in apparent CF activity could not be correlated with the percentage of blast cells in the peripheral blood.

3 Part of the apparent CF activity was found to be due to the presence of thymidine in the incubated cell suspensions.

4 Thymidine does not stimulate growth of an amethopterin resistant strain of *P. cerevisiae*. In almost all the leukocyte assays done with both the amethopterin sensitive and resistant strains the apparent CF activity was lower with the latter.

5 The exact nature of the increase in the total apparent CF activity of the leukocytes from acute leukemia remains to be defined.

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## Added Comment

### Labeling of RNA of Rabbit Peritoneal Exudate Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes<sup>1</sup>

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Interest in the metabolism of the nucleic acids of leukocytes has been greatly stimulated by the basic studies of Thorell (21) who used the ultraviolet absorption technique of Caspersson (4) and by the later finding that many purine analogs and folic acid antagonists were able to cause a transient remission in both experimental and spontaneous leukemia. A large number of these anticancer agents inhibit the formation of nucleic acids (19).

Of recent years the labeling of nucleic acids with radioactive precursors has proved a useful tool for the study of nucleic acid metabolism. The present paper describes some of the metabolic potentialities of rabbit polymorphonuclear leukocytes in this regard. The polymorphonuclear leukocytes were obtained from peritoneal exudates of the rabbit by the method of de Haan (9). The ability of these cells to label ribonucleic acid (RNA) has been compared with that of rat liver slices studied under similar conditions.

#### Results

Table I shows the specific activities of the RNA nucleotides of the rabbit polymorphonuclear leukocytes incubated for 2 hours in Krebs Ringer bicarbonate buffer pH 7.4 in the presence of inorganic P<sup>3</sup>. After the incubation the RNA nucleotides were separated by electrophoresis on paper by the method of Davidson and Smellie (5). The nucleotides so isolated are mixtures of the *a* and *b* isomers (3) now known to be the 2- and 3-phosphoribosides respectively (2, 12). It

<sup>1</sup> This work was aided by a grant from the National Cancer Institute of Canada.

can be seen that all four nucleotides were labeled adenylic acid and uridylic acid being much more active than guanylic acid and cytidylic acid

In Table I are also given results for liver slices incubated with inorganic  $P^3$  under similar conditions. Again all four nucleotides were

TABLE I

LABELING OF RNA NUCLEOTIDES IN RABBIT POLYMORPHONUCLEAR LEUKOCYTES AND RAT LIVER SLICES INCUBATED WITH INORGANIC  $P^3$  FOR 2 HOURS IN KREBS RINGER BICARBONATE BUFFER

Nucleotide	Number of experiments	Specific activity (mean $\pm$ S.E. mean) counts/min / $\gamma$ P	
		Polymorphonuclear leukocyte	Liver slice
Adenylic acid	6	42.2 $\pm$ 7.1	2.0 $\pm$ 2.5
Guanylic acid	6	5.2 $\pm$ 3.9	16.3 $\pm$ 0.9
Cytidylic acid	6	29.5 $\pm$ 4.6	19.0 $\pm$ 1.0
Uridylic acid	6	39.0 $\pm$ 8.1	3.2 $\pm$ 1.5

TABLE II

LABELING OF RNA BASES IN RABBIT POLYMORPHONUCLEAR LEUKOCYTES AND RAT LIVER SLICES INCUBATED WITH FORMATE- $C^{14}$  FOR 2 HOURS IN KREBS RINGER BICARBONATE BUFFER

Base	Number of experiments	Specific activity (mean $\pm$ S.E. mean) counts/min / $\mu$ mole	
		Polymorphonuclear leukocyte	Liver slice
Adenine	5	0	4050 $\pm$ 850
Guanine	5	0	630 $\pm$ 160
Cytosine	5	0	0
Uracil	5	0	0

labeled but for each nucleotide the activity was considerably less than that of the corresponding nucleotide of the leukocytes. As found for the white cells the adenylic acid and uridylic acid were more active than the guanylic acid and the cytidylic acid thus confirming previous reports of *in vivo* studies (6-23). The same is apparently true for other tissues. Adenylic acid and uridylic acid were found to be more active than guanylic acid and cytidylic acid in brain tissue *in vitro* (7) and in adrenal tissue *in vivo* (14).

Table II shows the specific activities of the bases of RNA when similar preparations of rabbit polymorphonuclear leukocytes and liver slices

were incubated with formate  $C^{14}$  instead of inorganic  $P^3$  as the source of the radioactivity. In these experiments the RNA nucleotides were separated by the method of Schmidt and Thannhauser (18). The bases were liberated by perchloric acid hydrolysis and were then isolated by the paper chromatographic method of Wyatt (25) as described by Mannell and Rossiter (15).

It will be noted that with the liver slices good incorporation was observed for the RNA adenine with the guanine being less active. As anticipated there was negligible activity in the two pyrimidines. A surprising finding was the complete lack of labeling of both purines as well as pyrimidines in the RNA of the leukocytes.

The RNA of the polymorphonuclear leukocytes is thus labeled from inorganic  $P^3$  more actively than the RNA of liver slices but unlike the RNA of liver slices it is not labeled from formate  $C^{14}$ .

### Discussion

The mature rabbit polymorphonuclear cell from peritoneal exudates would appear to lack the enzyme equipment necessary for the formation of RNA *in vitro* from single carbon units. This is in sharp contrast to the findings for spleen (10, 15), bone marrow (1, 22), mouse leukemia cells (24) and human leukocytes from peripheral blood (Winzler see p. 567 of this volume). Mannell and Rossiter (15) found that most tissues were able to label RNA purines from formate  $C^{14}$ . The rabbit exudate polymorphonuclear leukocyte would thus appear to be unusual.

The labeling of the RNA of rabbit leukocytes from inorganic  $P^3$  was to be anticipated from the results of early *in vivo* studies (8) and *in vitro* studies with rat spleen (10) and lymphocytic cells from rabbit appendix and mouse spleen (13).

Figures have not been given for deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). With formate  $C^{14}$  the purines of the liver DNA were labeled but not those of the leukocyte DNA. With inorganic  $P^3$  the labeling of RNA was much greater than that of the DNA in both the liver slices and the leukocytes. Indeed because of the possibility that nonradioactive DNA may be contaminated with slight traces of much more radioactive RNA it is by no means certain whether the DNA is labeled at all in *in vitro* studies such as those reported above with polymorphonuclear leukocytes and liver slices and those referred to previously with brain slices (7), spleen (10) or lymphocytic cells (13). That the DNA is not labeled from inorganic  $P^3$  would be in conformity with the suggestion that inorganic  $P^3$  is incorporated into DNA only during cell division (11, 16, 17, 20).

## Summary

1 When rabbit peritoneal exudate polymorphonuclear leukocytes or rat liver slices were allowed to respire in a Krebs Ringer bicarbonate buffer containing inorganic  $P^3$  radioactivity was observed in all four RNA nucleotides. The specific activities of the ribonucleotides of the leukocytes were greater than the specific activities of the corresponding ribonucleotides of the liver slices.

2 When formate  $C^{14}$  instead of inorganic  $P^3$  was the source of the radioactivity labeling was observed in RNA adenine and guanine of the liver slices but not in the corresponding purines of the RNA of the polymorphonuclear leukocytes.

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## General Discussion

DR A S WEISBERGER (Cleveland Ohio) I should like to direct my question to Dr Valentine and ask him to discuss something that he passed over rather briefly in his presentation namely the reciprocal relationship between sulfhydryl compounds such as cysteine and glutathione and the activity of alkaline phosphatase

He found that there was a decreased alkaline phosphatase in chronic myeloid leukemia and it has been frequently reported that the sulfhydryl content of these leukocytes is elevated I should like to know if Dr Valentine believes that the high sulfhydryl content of these leukocytes may be related to the low alkaline phosphatase activity

The other thing he noted was that certain substances such as x ray cortisone and Myleran produced an elevation in alkaline phosphatase All these things have been reported to inactivate sulfhydryl compounds Thus the mechanism of decreasing the inhibitor as he mentioned might be operating here

DR WILLIAM C MOLONEY (Boston Massachusetts) Our efforts have been directed much along the lines of Dr Valentine's however we have used histochemical as well as biochemical methods to study the behavior of alkaline phosphatase activity of polymorphonuclear leukocytes

Our data support his observations that there are probably two polymorphonuclear leukocyte populations in chronic myelogenous leukemia This can be demonstrated by the fact that during the course of a pyogenic infection in patients with chronic myelogenous leukemia there is a moderate rise in alkaline phosphatase activity shown by biochemical methods With histochemical techniques however this increased phosphatase activity is confined to about 20% of the segmented neutrophils In contrast in normal individuals during pyogenic infection over 90% of the segmented neutrophils become strongly positive

Prolonged incubation will produce a similar phenomenon and such observations indicate methods of investigating this cell population problem

In passing I should also like to mention that we have studied the effect of Myleran x ray and  $P^{32}$  in myeloid metaplasia and in leukemic populations We have noted that there has been no shift in alkaline phosphatase activity toward normal values This may mean that these agents uniformly affect the blast cell before differentiation in both hyperplastic and leukemic populations

We have studied 5 nucleotidase activity in polymorphonuclear leukocytes and have found that cells with nonspecific alkaline phosphatase split the phosphate from the 5 carbon of adenosine 5 phosphate as a nonspecific phosphomonoesterase

DR RICHARD J WINZLER (Chicago Illinois) Dr Valentine has raised the very interesting possibility that the remaining cells of the leukemic patient in remission may not be normal but may represent a lineage derived from the abnormal leukemic cells this being reflected in a low alkaline phosphatase activity

We have some data bearing on this point Leukocytes from patients with granulocytic leukemia take up radioactive formate more rapidly than normal or lymphatic leukemia cells and are much more sensitive *in vitro* to folic acid antagonists In several such patients treated with Myleran we have found that as the cell count returns to normal the metabolism of the cells as reflected by formate uptake and sensitivity to amethopterin also returns toward normal This would lead to a con

clusion opposite from that Dr Valentine derived from his work with alkaline phosphatase

I think this question of the normalcy of leukocytes during a leukemic remission is very much a key point that we should keep in mind in future research

Dr GEORGE ROUSEN (Duarte California) Dr Valentine how does variation in cell size affect the per cell phosphatase value?

Another question I should like to direct to Dr Rousner Are the rabbit exudate cells permeable to formate? If they are as seems likely it may be that the failure to observe formate incorporation into cell nucleic acid in contrast to ready  $P^{32}$  incorporation is due to the absence of free glutamine in the cells as has been indicated by our chromatographic results

Dr MILTON TOPOREK (Ann Arbor Michigan) I should like to add some observations we have made on acid phosphatase in white cells isolated from leukemic cases

As shown by Swendsen the enzyme activity in the granulocytes is roughly ten times that found in the lymphocytes We followed a fair number of patients through many months and many changes in treatment in an attempt to correlate changes in acid phosphatase activity with cell populations

As has occurred so many times in such situations we came away without a definite conclusion merely a frustrating impression that some of the changes we have found were correlated with increases and decreases in the immature cell population

Dr NATHANIEL B KERNICK (Long Beach California) Dr Valentine has made the interesting observation that patients with lupus erythematosus have normal or low leukocyte alkaline phosphatase activities despite the inflammatory reaction in this disease I presume many of these patients were on steroid therapy

I am wondering if Dr Valentine would comment on whether the leukocyte in lupus erythematosus is abnormal as it is in leukemia in its response to steroids or whether prolonged steroid therapy results in depression of the alkaline phosphatase in normal individuals also

Dr L D HAMILTON (New York New York) I should like to ask Dr Valentine what he thinks the function of this enzyme is that he has been measuring in the white cells and what significance if any he would place on the fact that it is lower in chronic myeloid leukemia than in any other normal granulocyte

Dr SVEN MOESCHLIN (Solothurn Switzerland) I should like to mention one point There are also clinical findings which point to the possibility of two populations in leukemia

I think there is no doubt in some cases of acute leukemia (Dr Bernard in Paris and I have seen this in puncturing different marrow cells in the very early cases of leukemia) that there were completely different findings Central myeloblasts were in the sternal marrow and not in others I think we will find in the end that with all the marrows involved it may just be denervation as we also see in some myelomas

There also are very different findings in making splenic punctures and marrow punctures Some cases show a very mature cell and blast forms in the spleen and others in the marrow and so on So there may be in some cases of chronic myeloid leukemia a difference in those two populations

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## Lactic Acid Production by Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes<sup>1</sup>

SAMUEL P. MARTIN GORDON R. McKINNEY<sup>2</sup>  
R. GREEN and JANE DERBYSHIRE

Department of Medicine Duke University School of  
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The mature polymorphonuclear leukocytes from normal subjects possess a high aerobic lactic acid formation (4). These cells do not exhibit the "Pasteur effect" in that the lactate formation is not increased by exclusion of oxygen from the environment (10). The retina (23), certain nervous tissues (23), renal medulla (6) and intestinal mucosa (7) share this characteristic with the leukocyte. In contrast myeloid leukemic cells have a low lactic acid formation in the presence of oxygen and exhibit the "Pasteur effect" (10). There has been considerable study directed toward the quantitative aspects of this high glycolytic rate but few data are available on the route of glycolysis or on the possible sources of this lactic acid.

One type of study that has been used to elucidate these differences in various tissues is the preparation of crystalline enzymes. Lactic dehydrogenase from muscle and tumor cells was shown to have no qualitative difference (11). Various other enzymes have been studied. In tumor tissue zymohexase was found to be present in limited quantity and was thought to be working at near capacity (30). In the leukocyte

<sup>1</sup> This work was supported in part by a research grant (No. G-3476) from the National Institutes of Health, United States Public Health Service, the Atomic Energy Commission (Contract AT(40-1)1081), the Baxter Laboratories, The American Medical Association and the American Cancer Society.

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DR W. N. VALENTINE (Los Angeles, California) First of all in answer to Dr Weisberger's questions in regard to the sulfhydryl content we measured sulfhydryl content of the leukocytes by the nitroprusside method and unlike the iodometric method or the method which Dr Martin has used we find that the glutathione content seems not to be elevated in leukemia.

Dr Martin may have some comments on this in that ergothioneine and other sulfhydryl compounds of leukocytes measured by some methods and not by others is not measured by our method which measures more closely glutathione.

I do not think this is the inhibitor that is possibly involved here because of the fact that in order to get substantial inhibition you have to have 0.001 to 0.002 molar concentrations. If you get rid of that sort of concentration in your incubation mixture you do not have significant inhibition. Therefore I do not think this is a specific cysteine or glutathione type of inhibition.

Second Dr Weisberger I do not believe Mykran or a ray ordinarily affects the alkaline phosphatase of the cells in remission. It was only in these exceptional instances where this was observed very early in the course of the disease and associated with a very complete type of remission. In other instances the vast majority there was no change in the pattern despite much greater amounts of a ray and Mykran administered.

Dr Winzler's comments were very interesting. I should like to say that I put out this comment about the two-population theory not because of any brief that I have felt for it. One can interpret the results just as easily as a metabolic reversion rather than on a two-population theory but I think his point of differentiation between the two possibilities is of some importance.

In regard to Dr Rouser's question about comparison of cell weight and its possible effect on enzymes we find that on a cell nitrogen basis in chronic myelocytic leukemia the unit cell nitrogen content is very nearly that of the average cell in the normal population. It runs about 0.9 of normal and is a little less in terms of nitrogen content. In chronic lymphatic leukemia which we are not dealing with here it is appreciably less running about 40 or 43% in our hands.

In regard to the acid phosphatase situation we have measured that in cells but we do not find this striking lability in acid phosphatase that we find in alkaline phosphatase nor do we find it reduced in leukemia.

Concerning Dr Karmack's question the alkaline phosphatase in the subjects with lupus erythematosus was not low but was within the normal range. What this means I don't know. Some of these patients had been on large doses of steroid for considerable periods of time and the values were still low.

Whether this represents an abnormal leukocyte or whether in some of these collagen diseases (and I believe there is ancillary evidence for this in other areas) the so-called "stress" or the obvious fact that the patient is sick does not necessarily evoke an increased pituitary-adrenal response I don't know but I suspect that at least in some cases while the patient is ill and is under "stress" in certain types of diseases this does not necessarily evoke the response.

For instance in rheumatoid arthritis the value may be normal in the presence of elevated sedimentation rates and other evidences of activity nonetheless if you give these patients ACTH they get the rather characteristic normal elevation.

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of the horse Wagner has shown enzymatic degradation of glycogen however there were no reducing intermediates between glycogen and lactic acid in the intact cell (26) In dialyzed cells reducing intermediates were found to be present and the lactic acid formation was proportional to the phosphate concentration (27-28) The intermediates isolated were shown to be glucose 1 phosphate glucose 6 phosphate fructose 6 phosphate fructose 1,6 diphosphate and phosphoglyceric acid He also showed the presence of hexokinase (29)

Recently Beck carried out an excellent study on the kinetics of glycolysis and certain glycolytic enzymes in the normal mature and leukemic leukocytes (3) These studies add enormously to the knowledge of the glycolytic system in normal and leukemic cells He showed that these cells contain all the enzymes of the Meyerhof Emden scheme of glycolysis (Fig 1 steps 5 through 12) In the quantitative measurement of enzyme concentration the leukemic cell contained greater aldolase and isomerase activity (Fig 1 steps 5 and 6) but less glyceraldehyde-3 phosphate dehydrogenase and lactic dehydrogenase (Fig 1 steps 7 and 12) The latter enzymes were proportional to the lower aerobic lactic acid formation of the leukemic cell He also showed that despite the proportionality between dehydrogenases and glycolytic activity the capacity far exceeded actual production The aldolase activity of these cells like that of tumor cells seemed to be working at near capacity Purified lactic dehydrogenase from the two cell types was shown to have identical behavior and no differences were demonstrated with regards to Michaelis constants or pH activity relationships of the other enzymes These activities agreed with those of enzymes from other sources No rate limiting enzyme step was found The enzymes involved in the conversion of glucose to fructose 1,6 diphosphate were not evaluated in this report Broken cells were used and thus there was no evaluation of the characteristics of the cell membrane The rate limiting action may be found in this area of glucose transport or phosphorylation since the studies of Wagner using intact cells showed no accumulation of reducing intermediates

Recent studies have indicated that the glucose oxidation and the hexose shunt (Fig 1 steps 13 through 16) may play an active role in the glucose utilization of tissues such as the adrenal gland and certain lymphomas (8) The importance of this step in the metabolism of the polymorphonuclear leukocyte and its possible role in the high aerobic glycolytic rate await further study

The intact mature leukocyte shows an increase in lactic acid production on the addition of glucose This increase is proportional to the con

centration of glucose until levels of 100 mg % are reached (19) (Fig 2) The response to fructose differs from that of glucose in that the lactic acid production is directly proportional to the concentration of fructose over a wide range. On the addition of combinations of glucose and fruc

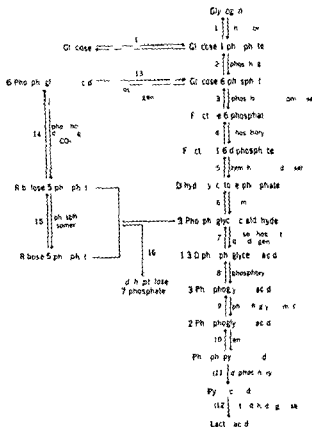


FIG 1 The Meyerhof Embden System of Glycolysis and the Hexose Monophosphate Shunt

test, the lactic acid production is increased, however this increase comes about through the increased utilization of glucose.

Studies have been carried out in this laboratory on the effect of inhibitors of glycolysis on the lactic acid production of the mature human granulocyte in an effort to determine some of the characteristics of this cell. A review of these has previously been published (16-19). The most striking effect is a negative one and is presented by oxamic acid in

inhibitor of lactic acid dehydrogenase (9). This compound has a slight effect on the lactic acid production however this could be overcome by the addition of pyruvate. Iodoacetate was the most potent inhibitor. If the cells were exposed to iodoacetate and then dialyzed lactic acid could still be produced in the presence of hexose diphosphate. This would tend to indicate that another route might exist for lactate production which does not involve the enzyme glyceraldehyde-3 phosphate de

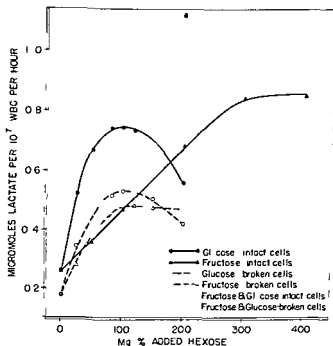


FIG. 2. The effect of glucose and fructose on the aerobic production of lactic acid by leukocytes from healthy subjects.

hydrogenase since this enzyme has as its prosthetic group glutathione (5).

Various substrates have been studied with the mature human leukocyte. The intact cell cannot utilize the phosphorylated intermediates. It is interesting that in the broken unfortified cell system more lactic acid is produced from glyceraldehyde-3 phosphate and pyruvate than from 3-phosphoglyceric acid.

The role of various cofactors in lactic acid production is under study at the present time. In dialyzed cells glutathione increased the lactate production. Magnesium and phosphate appear to be necessary for lactic acid formation from glucose.

Recent studies in this laboratory have added to the complexity of the problem of lactate production. Lactate analyses have been made on extracts of polymorphonuclear leukocytes and erythrocytes. The Barker-Summerson method (1) has been compared with the modification of the method described by Neilands (22) using a purified lactic acid dehydrogenase. With erythrocytes there is close agreement between the values derived by the two techniques. But with leukocytes the Barker-Summerson method gives values consistently greater. This would indicate the formation of some compound other than L-lactic acid.

Stereochemical studies in the past indicate that lactic acid produced by muscle is L-lactic acid. Levene showed that leukocyte of pleural exudate of dogs in the presence of glucose produced L-lactic acid and with methylglyoxal D- and L- (12-14). Racker (24) stated that glyoxylase I from yeast has a specificity for the production of D-lactic acid from methylglyoxal and glyoxylase II from muscle can produce either D- or L-lactic acid depending on the intermediate used.

The role of methylglyoxal as an intermediate in carbohydrate metabolism has been a stormy one and has recently been relegated to the secondary role of the removal of spontaneously formed methylglyoxal in muscle (21). McKinney and co-workers have recently reviewed the possible activity of glyoxylase in the mature human leukocyte. It is interesting to note that earlier studies in which this enzyme was thought to play an important role in the glycolytic system were carried out on blood cells whereas later more definitive studies were carried out on muscle (2, 25, 31, 32). Barrenschéen (2) isolated the semicarbazone of methylglyoxal from dogs' blood. Schneider and Widmann (25, 31, 32) demonstrated that human leukocytes form methylglyoxal and stated that 70 to 75% of the glucose passed through this stage. Preliminary observations in our laboratory indicate the formation of methylglyoxal by dialyzed human granulocytes. McKinney (15, 16) has shown that the mature granulocyte contains more than 700 times the glyoxylase activity of the erythrocyte. In addition, he has shown that the glyoxylase activity of the mature polymorphonuclear leukocyte is three times that of the leukemic cell (17). This latter quantitative difference might account for some of the aerobic lactic acid production and the absence of the Pasteur effect in the mature leukocyte since he has shown that the glyoxylase of leukocytes is not influenced by anaerobiosis nor is it inhibited by oxamic acid.

The lactic acid production can be shown to be influenced by disease states as well as hormone concentration (18). Adrenal steroid hormones compounds E and F in physiologic concentration cause a decrease in

lactic acid production. The leukocytes from diabetic individuals have a low lactic acid production and this is increased on the addition of insulin (20). This response to insulin is not seen in the normal leukocyte. Leukocytes respond to the presence of bacterial pyrogens with increased lactic acid production. This makes the use of pyrogen free water important in physiologic studies (19).

The studies thus far do not give a definitive answer to the factors underlying the high aerobic lactate production of the mature polymorphonuclear leukocyte. One must await further studies such as those of Beck involving enzymes which transport glucose across the cell membrane and other enzymes involved in the production of fructose 1,6 diphosphate. The role of the hexose shunt as a possible source of lactic acid production also awaits further study. The place of glyoxylase must also await evaluation.

The present studies however indicate that this cell is very sensitive to many changes in the internal environment. It is interesting to speculate on its future use as a laboratory tool for the study of cellular mechanisms of disease. Studies such as those of Valentine, Kaelin Hamilton, Vilter and Weisberger reported at this Symposium make this speculation a rather safe one. It is a cell that can be easily obtained in the free state. It responds rapidly to environmental changes such as hormone concentration. And the most important characteristic of this cell is that it can be removed from the body thus removing it from the well adjusted compensatory mechanisms which have limited our studies in the past where body fluids have been our only source of material.

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## Diagnostic and Nosological Problems at the Borderline of Leukemia

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The histologist seeking to ascertain the nature of a pathological lesion looks with particular care at the periphery where the transition from abnormal to normal tissue takes place. The features to be seen at this interface often prove of diagnostic importance particularly in neoplastic and necrotizing processes. There is some justification for adopting a similar approach to the interpretation of disease states and supplementing the information obtained from the study of classical manifestations of a disorder by particularly careful attention to incomplete or atypical forms.

There is no scarcity of such borderline states in the case of leukemia. Many of them are remarkably interesting and must be closely considered when the fundamental nature of the leukemic disorder is discussed. I propose to make some brief comments supported by occasional reference to case data about several of the most clearly recognized of these "paraleukemic" states and attempt to illustrate and expand the idea that leukemia may be merely one manifestation of an abnormal process capable of showing itself in several different clinical and hematological forms.

### The Relationship of Aplasia to Leukemia

Three particular aspects of this relationship may be delineated.

1. Transition may occur from an apparently typical pancytopenia with marrow aplasia and no increase in primitive cells to a fully leukemic picture. The salient features of one such case are shown in Fig. 1. The change from a pancytopenic aplastic nonleukemic condition at the onset to a normal picture and thence to a frankly leukemic one is clearly



2 Aplastic phases may develop during the course of leukemia either treated or untreated and such a change is by no means confined to cases where vigorous use of antimetabolic agents can be held responsible. Spontaneous remissions may be heralded by an agranulocytic hypoplastic or aplastic marrow picture as so well exemplified in the striking case reported by Bassen and Kohn (2) where four remissions unassociated with specific antileukemic treatment apart from transfusions were each preceded by marrow hypoplasia.

3 Pancytopenias which never become frankly leukemic frequently show some increase in primitive cells in the marrow and as many as 20% of the marrow cells may be blast forms. The development of maturation arrest at the myeloblast promyelocyte stage in response to granulocytopenogenic agents has been clearly demonstrated by Moeschlin and his associates (16) and in such experiments although the peripheral blood picture is one of agranulocytosis the marrow may become very like that of leukemia.

Example of each of these three kinds of aplasia leukemia relationship are sufficiently common to influence our thinking on the etiology and pathogenesis of leukemia and the correlation is further supplemented by the actions of agents such as benzene and x rays which may produce either leukemic or aplastic pictures. Explanations in terms of irritative hyperplasia and "exhaustion atrophy" are unsatisfactory unless we can say what exactly is being irritated and what exhausted.

#### Leukemia Myeloproliferative States and Aplasia

The relation of leukemia and aplasia may be further expanded if we consider leukemia as one of a group of myeloproliferative disorders in which are included myelofibrosis megakaryocytic myelosis polycythemia vera and erythremic myelosis. This concept adumbrated by many authorities in the past has been clearly expounded and amply illustrated in recent years (5, 10, 11) and has probably been fairly generally accepted.

The similarities between members of this group and the transitions which may occur between them are now well recognized and I do not propose to spend much time amplifying this point but Figs. 2 through 5 illustrate one or two of the most important transitions and intermediate states.

Since aplastic pancytopenic phases may occur either terminally or during the course of any of these myeloproliferative disorders we may draw a chart of interrelationships of the kind shown in Fig. 6.

shown. It is noteworthy that three marrow punctures at different sites during the early stages of this disease failed to reveal any increase in primitive cells.

A similar sequence of events has been recorded in many carefully studied cases (3 12 14 20) and one may be right in suspecting that the

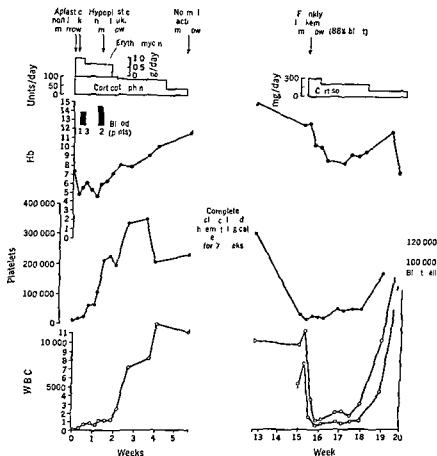


FIG 1 Transition from typical pancytopenia to a fully leukemic picture (Reproduced by courtesy of Dr Cibbs of Addenbrooke's hospital)

sequence has occurred a good deal more frequently than it has been reported. In this connection the report of Stodtmeister and Buchmann (18) that small islands of leukemic cells were often to be found at thorough post mortem examination in cases of aplastic anemia is most suggestive of a very close relation between idiopathic aplasia and acute leukemia.

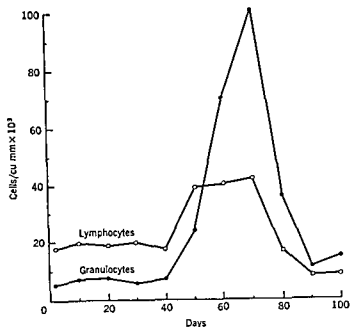


FIG 4 Graph depicting the peripheral blood changes in a case of myelofibrosis during a particularly interesting phase of the disease. Remarkable fluctuations of lymphocyte and granulocyte levels gave successive resemblances to chronic lymphatic and chronic myeloid leukemia.

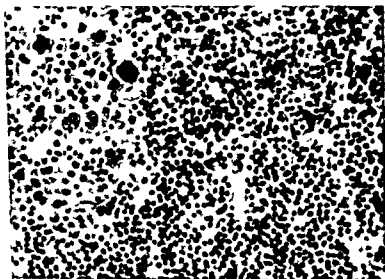


FIG 5 Marrow section from the patient whose blood changes were shown in Fig 4. It shows increased connective tissue, megakaryocytic hyperplasia, and lymphocytic infiltration.

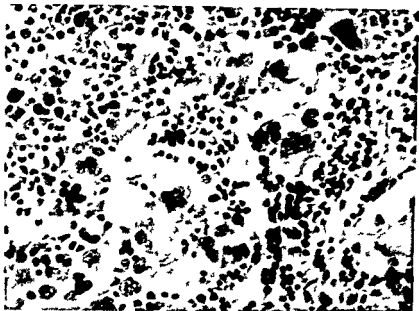


FIG 2 Marrow section from a case of megakaryocytic myelosis showing a proliferative hyperplastic picture involving all marrow cell series but particularly the megakaryocytes. There was some general increase in connective tissue and reticulin. The peripheral blood of this patient showed a mild leukoerythroblastic (myelophthisic) anemia.

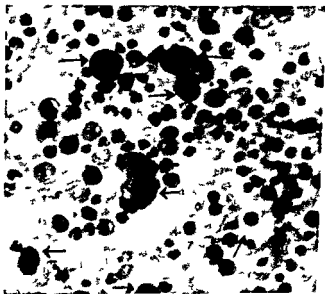


FIG 3 Photograph of a marrow smear from a patient with chronic myeloid leukemia having a typical peripheral blood picture. Gross megakaryocytic hypertrophy is evident with many megakaryocyte precursors.



atypical tuberculosis. If we accept the tuberculous cases as having a single cause and common pathogenetic mechanism, we cannot escape the strong suspicion that a comparable state of affairs exists in the parallel idiopathic group. If this is so, biochemical and virus studies designed to detect a fundamental metabolic defect in leukemia ought to be directed equally to the detection of a similar defect in aplastic cytopenic and myeloproliferative states. The biochemical and virological similarities rather than differences would be of major significance.

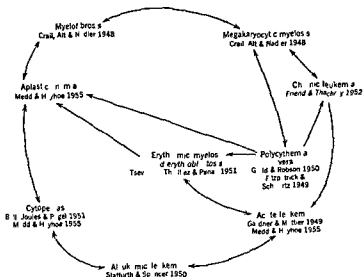


FIG. 7. Figure 6 supplemented by references to case reports of tuberculous parallels to each of the disorders included in the figure.

Although discussion of the leukemic remission is not strictly germane to the present argument, I feel compelled to make some brief concluding reference to it, since it is in a sense a very remarkable paraleukemic state.

Remissions occurring spontaneously or after transfusion or treatment with steroid hormones or antimitotic agents frequently satisfy the criteria laid down by most investigators that both marrow and peripheral blood should return substantially to normal and that physical signs and symptoms of leukemia should disappear. These striking remissions lasting from a few weeks to more than a year must influence our conception of the basic leukemic process, which is clearly of a kind susceptible to apparently complete temporary reversal. I should, however, like to pose a

### Myeloproliferative and Pancytopenic Reactions to Tuberculosis

With this diagram of relationships (Fig 6) in mind I should like to draw attention to the remarkably similar series of hematological abnormalities which may be encountered during the course of atypical tuberculosis. Dr Medd and I in a recent article on *tuberculous miliary necrosis with pancytopenia* (15) discuss some of the reported examples of these peculiar blood reactions and point out that they provide a striking

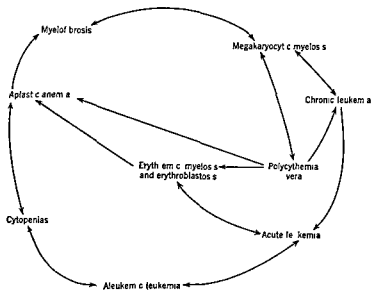


FIG 6 Interrelationships of myeloproliferative and aplastic states

ing parallel to the primary myeloproliferative and pancytopenic group of disorders. I think it is true to say that every one of the conditions included in Fig 6 has been reported to be mimicked by a reaction to tuberculosis. In support of this statement I have drawn a second version of Fig 6 (Fig 7) in which at least one reference to recorded cases of the tuberculous parallel is given for each of the disorders mentioned.

### Speculations on the Background and Nature of Leukemia

The general conclusion that can be drawn from this survey of para-leukemic states is that the leukemias form only one aspect of a wide group of related diseases including not only the myeloproliferative disorders but also cytopenic and aplastic ones. The close relationship of this large group of diseases is further emphasized by the occurrence of a similar pattern of blood and marrow pictures during the course of

As a clinician I always defer to the pathologist since the diagnosis of leukemia is a pathologist's diagnosis first, last and always. At best the clinician's diagnosis of leukemia is an inferential one.

The evidence that is indicated in the literature remarked on by Dr Moeschlin, Dr Doan, Dr Dameshek, and refreshed in our memories this morning by Dr Hayhoe, indicates that these queer transitions occur not only in the clinical manifestations of these diseases but even in their cytology facts which were magnificently brought out by Hal Downey many years ago. The question is: who has the temerity to make the diagnosis?

The next thing is this: I have watched the pathologist at the autopsy table and during dissection and finally after the microscopic examination of tissues of a case of treated leukemia say, "I cannot make a diagnosis of leukemia in this case. If it had existed certainly what you did has blasted it out of recognition. There is no evidence diagnostically of leukemia."

The question is: were we dealing with one of these queer cantrips or one of these caprices of this very primitive, magnificent and marvelous tissue, the study of which has captured our attention in its overtones and fantasies these past three days?

DR SERGIO DE CARVALHO (Cleveland, Ohio): I should like to ask a question concerning Dr Hayhoe's paper and then express a wish. Do you think that you can compare from the cytological point of view the terminal myeloblastic reaction of a chronic myeloid leukemia with an acute leukemia *dumlebei*? I don't.

I wish you would develop the relationship between the megaloblastic state and the initiation of acute leukemia, a relationship we observed lately in four cases.

DR W. N. VALENTINE (Los Angeles, California): I should like to raise one point in connection with Dr Hayhoe's paper. It seems to me that in dealing with a tissue which is multipotential we are still limited to a certain number of responses which can occur to a variety of stimuli. This particular type of tissue presumably can differentiate into different types of blood cells. It can differentiate into fibrous tissue from the reticulum and into bony tissue. It does not appear to me to be utterly convincing that because reactions resemble each other superficially and because they have morphologic similarities they are necessarily related pathogenetically in view of the fact that the scope of the reactions is also limited to some extent.

DR ALBERT S. GORLON (New York, New York): I should like to draw some parallels between the observations of Dr Martin and certain of the experiments that we have conducted relating to the matter of glycolysis within the blood-forming organs.

Dr Martin has confined his remarks to the mature human polymorphonuclear leukocyte, whereas our studies have centered largely on blood-forming organs with particular emphasis on the bone marrow of the rat.

Quite interestingly, after removal of the adrenals in rat, there is an increase in the glycolytic activity of the bone marrow. This metabolic change is accompanied by an increase in the relative immaturity of the neutrophilic granulocytic population, an increase in the absolute numbers of lymphocytes and eosinophils, and a decrease in the numbers of nucleated red blood cells.

Of course we don't know here what is cause and effect. It may be that the metabolic changes which must necessarily precede the morphologic ones in differen-

question in relation to the extent of these complete remissions. Do all pathological manifestations of the disease in fact ever disappear? Certainly in a small proportion of cases no cytological abnormality whatever can be detected either by ordinary staining methods or by histochemistry. If there is no detectable evidence of leukemia during such a remission why should relapse be invariable?

11

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## General Discussion

DR SALVATORE LUCIA (San Francisco, California) I have no restraints in remarking on Dr Hayhoe's paper especially since many of the things I have heard these last three days are so definitive that I begin to doubt my very existence in an atmosphere of science limited to conditions which apparently have offered no challenge to the diagnostician.

What I have to say now is not too comforting to those of us who are engaged in definitive research and those of us who are challenged with the responsibility of making a diagnosis of the presence or not of leukemia.

cytes with a paucity of platelets and with rapid destruction of erythrocytes. The initiating, sustaining, and compensatory mechanisms that are involved now demand that the concept of the leukemias in the future must be on a broader basis and that we cannot focus on one specific element as we have done today.

DR WAYNE RUNDLES (Durham, North Carolina) The importance of reduced bone marrow function or cytopenias in myelogenous leukemia, I think, has been emphasized with complete justification. This type of patient seems to be increasingly common and may be significant in reference to factors producing leukemia.

In reference to other types of malignant proliferations of bone marrow we have had two individuals with rather typical chronic granulocytic leukemia as judged by the immature circulating granulocytes and associated changes in the bone marrow, who in addition have had plasma cell proliferations that we would regard as diagnostic of multiple myeloma. These individuals have had not only numerous abnormal plasma cells in their bone marrow but homogeneous globulin components in their sera.

In reference to "pseudoleukemia" induced by infection, some patients with well documented myelogenous leukemia eventually are found at autopsy to have active tuberculosis, fungus diseases, and even such bizarre entities as "inclusion cell disease." When little is known about a given patient's hematologic background, there is always a question as to whether these developments have come into the picture at a late hour or whether they actually do simulate or produce a leukemic blood picture.

CHAIRMAN C. A. DOAN (Columbus, Ohio) We have seen in our clinic a proposal of Dr. Hayhoe's comments a number of patients with hypoplastic marrow and a pancytopenia as the initial hematologic picture and after many weeks or months a terminal blastic leukemia has developed. It has been our definite impression that these cases have terminated as monoblastic, not myeloblastic leukemia. When the marrow is examined supravitaly the basic mesenchymal reticuloendothelium only is seen giving rise to primitive monoblasts somewhat less differentiated than the myeloid cell series. The question is whether Dr. Hayhoe has also found the terminal phase in these original hypoplastic states to represent a monoblastic rather than a myeloblastic differentiation.

DR F. G. J. HAYHOE (Cambridge, England) I certainly have bitten off a great deal more here than I can chew. Seven problems have been presented, almost any one of which would take twenty minutes to discuss. I will run through them very rapidly.

First, "Do you think that the myeloblastic termination of chronic myeloid leukemia is the same as acute leukemia?" Your guess is as good as mine. Cytologically it may be precisely the same. In general, however, the response to treatment is different. For example, we had some nice illustrations of the response of this myeloblastic stage to deacetylmethylcolchicine, and in my experience with acute leukemias they respond very very poorly to deacetylmethylcolchicine. So it is possible on the basis of therapeutic results that there is something strikingly different, but cytologically they may be very similar.

Second, the megaloblastic onset of leukemias. I myself have not seen a case of leukemia developing in what had previously been a megaloblastic picture, although I have often encountered megaloblasts in an already developed leukemic picture.

tiation processes are responsible for the structural changes that occur in the marrows of the adrenalectomized animal

Similarly if one administers adrenal cortical steroids the increase glycolysis is overcome and the morphology is restored to normal. Moreover one can depress the rate of glycolysis below normal levels by giving larger quantities of the steroid.

Recently we have been considering the possibility that the changes which occur after adrenalectomy may not be mediated directly but may be a consequence of alterations in the vascular dynamics involving the affected organ. Thus the blood flow through vital organs of the adrenalectomized animal may be impaired. Hoagland and his associates have demonstrated a decrease in the flow of blood through the head of the adrenalectomized rat which can be restored to normal by the administration of certain adrenal steroids.

Since a number of people have been going out on limbs this morning I should like to select one for myself and suggest that adrenalectomy by causing ischemia within the bone marrow sets into motion some abnormal metabolic pattern which precedes and may be responsible for the observed morphologic changes. Similarly adrenal steroids may exert their ameliorative effects in the adrenalectomized animal and perhaps also in the leukemias by correcting the abnormal metabolic changes.

All this might correlate with Dr Hayhoe's observations on leukemia in patients with tuberculosis or cardiovascular disease in whom some degree of anoxia may very well exist. Obviously not all such subjects develop blood dyscrasias but the possibility exists that the sensitivity of the blood forming organs to hypoxia is more acute in the susceptible subject.

It would seem a possibility that some forms of pathologic blood formation are related at least in part to disturbances in the mechanism concerned with the normal oxygenation and nutrition of the blood forming tissues.

DR HOWARD R. BIERNAN (Duarte, California). I should like to sound a note of caution.

First of all the leukemias are indeed a dynamic group of diseases. It should be readily conceded that there may be a phase of the leukemias certainly at their very onset in which they are neither clinically nor hematologically detectable and yet there is no doubt that these children or patients do have leukemias. As Block and Jacobson showed in some of the early preleukemic cases the classical hematologic characteristics are often absent.

Since we apparently have focused our attention today on the leukocytes it is worth while to emphasize a bit that these diseases do not restrict themselves exclusively to the leukocytes. The leukemias involve all the hematological elements. The leukocytes, the erythrocytes and the platelets are equally involved and yet it also must be realized that perhaps none of these elements may contain the fundamental defect of these diseases.

The key biochemical lesion of the leukemias has not been revealed at present. If this is a disease of overproduction of the leukocytes as Virchow originally said then x-ray therapy,<sup>13</sup> arsenic, nitrogen mustard, the antimetabolites and all the other agents which are very effective leukocyte destroyers would have produced a cure in at least a few instances.

Therefore it might be wise to keep an open mind and entertain the possibility that the present basic concept of the leukemic state is incorrect. We are dealing with a group of fatal diseases characterized by the accumulation of immature leuko-

**Part VIII**

**Nucleic Acids as the Target for Chemotherapy  
Mechanisms of Drug Action and Resistance**

**Chairman**

**Joseph H. Burchenal**

**Memorial Center for Cancer and Allied Diseases**

**New York New York**

Without chasing down the literature on this subject unless there is some more informed person who can tell us I wouldn't like to say anything about megaloblastic states of onset. It is not difficult to imagine that our nuclear protein chemists can easily offer a rational kind of explanation of why we might expect to find megaloblastic change in an acute leukemic state.

I should like to comment on Dr Valentine's remark. Of course I am not in the least suggesting that there is any conclusive evidence of an etiological or pathogenetic identity between all these states. I am merely putting up a scheme to stimulate ideas. Certainly I think there is a relationship between these conditions and we ought not ignore it.

The next question concerns the importance of anoxia in pathogenesis. I think this is an extraordinarily interesting topic but it is one into which I don't think we can really go.

During the last week I had the opportunity to read Warburg's article in *Science* which I think is very relevant to this point. I don't think I would add anything other than that I find Warburg's arguments on the matter a very fruitful sort of stimulating presentation with regard to the importance of anoxia in the development of later productive states.

The next question asked was on the importance of a broad approach to the matter. I believe Dr Bierman asked it. I absolutely agree. I think it is most important that since so many of us are working in tiny isolated fields at least some of us should attempt to maintain a broad clinical approach and offer some kind of counterbalance to the excessive concentration on minutia.

Dr Rundles raised the question of the relationship of these myeloproliferative and leukemic states to plasma cell leukemia and multiple myeloma. This question of multiple myeloma and from there to the lymphomatous disorders reminds me of a comment of G. K. Chesterton's who wrote a book in response to a challenge.

*Somebody on top of a bus on which he was traveling one day said to him pointing to a passerby: "If a man believes in himself he will go far."*

Chesterton replied: "That is just the sort of thing he ought not to believe in."

His companion asked: "Then what should he believe in?"

Chesterton remarked: "I will go home and write a book about it," which he did.

He says in the preface to the book: "I wrote this book in response to a challenge and he has only to throw me another challenge and I will write another book."

I have connected up in this tentative scheme this morning these myeloproliferative and aplastic states and these tuberculous leukemoid reactions and I am prepared to tie in the lymphomatous group on the other side of the ring but I think we had better have our lunch instead.

Finally I think Dr Doan mentioned that in his experience some of these onsets in aplasia—the aplastic state onset—have been followed by a monocytic type of response. I have seen this in at least two cases but my own experience with the development of these states is not large enough to make any general comment.

As far as the French literature is concerned they don't seem to have developed monocytic relations but myeloblastic or lymphoblastic ones almost irrespectively.



# 31

## Nucleic Acids and Related Derivatives as Targets for Chemotherapy

GEORGE BOSWORTH BROWN and M. EARL BALIS

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The concept that nucleic acids occupy a key position in the economy of the cell has led to numerous attempts to control growth and multiplication by interference with their synthesis or metabolism. The theorizing that this approach could be useful has received support from the fact that empirical testing has succeeded in showing that certain related compounds can indeed lead to inhibitions of growth.

In view of the apparent importance of nucleic acids to cellular processes it is perhaps not surprising that organisms can biosynthesize their nucleic acids from simple and generally available metabolites. In the course of their synthesis *de novo* the purines are assembled from small units such as glycine, CO, the one carbon unit "formate" and " $\text{NH}_3$ ," the final closure of the purine ring is completed several steps after the attachment of ribose and phosphate (26). In other words nucleic acid synthesis is not dependent on any external supply of the large units which make up the polynucleotides. Despite the fact that they need not be supplied it has been found that a number of purines, pyrimidines and/or their ribose derivatives can be utilized when exogenous supplies are available (12). Our present conception of pathways leading to purines of nucleic acids is outlined by the very simplified flow sheet shown in Fig. 1 (12). The first purine derivative that appears, the "common intermediate" in Fig. 1 is a nucleotide of a purine.

The available evidence suggests that it is nucleotides which are formed in the tissues; however, despite the fact that free purines are not intermediates on the pathways of biosynthesis of these nucleotides, mechanisms exist for the incorporation of exogenously supplied purines. The



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be utilized with remarkable efficiency and can therefore greatly spare that synthesis. This is particularly well demonstrated in some microorganisms (3-5), and is significant in mammals (17).

That every tissue studied and presumably each cell, is capable of synthesizing purines *de novo* has been suggested by the results of the incorporation of small precursors into various tissues in several animals. This capability has also been demonstrated *in vitro* with slices of various tissues (27) cell suspensions (2) including ascites cells (23) and leukocytes (19) and of course with many microorganisms (1-3-5). *In vivo* experiments have demonstrated that neoplastic tissues possess this ability to a marked degree; in fact, even when purines are supplied exogenously the tumor uses them to a decidedly smaller extent than do other tissues (6). Unfortunately tumors are not so unique in this respect as might be desired since other rapidly growing tissues such as intestines, regenerating liver and bone marrow have a similar tendency. With an emphasis on synthesis *de novo* in tumors it is logical that interference with the biosynthetic mechanisms leading to the formation of purine derivatives can lead to a preferential toxicity to these tissues. This has indeed been found to be true and Drs. Goldthwait (16) and Buchanan (13) will be discussing those processes wherein certain agents with demonstrated efficacy, the antifolate acids and azaserine are operating.

Variations of the incorporations of exogenously supplied purines from tissue to tissue are also to be considered. Although Fig. 1 shows only adenine and guanine there are a number of other purines which can similarly be incorporated. The utilizations of four purines (including hypoxanthine and 2,6-diaminopurine) and of glycine for instance into various organs of the hamster show significant differences in their relative incorporations (6). Such differences are not yet interpretable but do point to some biochemical distinctions between tissues.

Some very impressive documentations (12) of great diversity in patterns of purine utilization is found in the differences in the direction and facility for interconversions of adenine and guanine derivatives in several species (Fig. 2). At one extreme (the rat *Torula utilis*) adenine is readily transformed into guanine derivatives but the converse does not occur. At the other extreme (*Lactobacillus leichmanii*, *Tetrahymena pyriformis*) the converse predominates that is guanine is readily transformed into adenine derivatives but adenine is not transformed into guanine derivatives. At the middle of the species "spectrum" are examples of continuous interconversion of these two purines (*Lactobacillus casei*). There are also more conservative organisms (*Escherichia coli*)

"active adenine" and "active guanine" in this scheme represent nucleotide derivatives which can be further anabolized into the polynucleotides. Thus not only does a nucleotide arise through the common pathway of synthesis but the free purines are initially converted into nucleotides.

This flow sheet also accounts for the transformations of either exogenously supplied adenine or guanine into polynucleotide derivatives of the other. There is evidence which suggests that cells can interchange the substituent groups but that the purine ring is maintained essentially intact throughout the conversions (3-24).

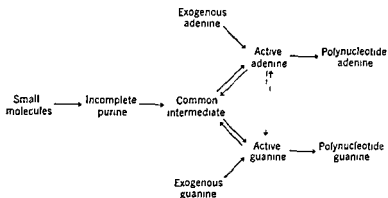


FIG. 1

An interconversion of the purines should be possible through simple reversal of the steps leading from the common intermediate but this is not necessarily so or at least there is an alternate pathway. Recently an *Aerobacter aerogenes* mutant obtained by Drs. Brooke and Magasanik (10) offered an opportunity for a rather crucial test of this point (1). This mutant requires guanine for growth and when so grown excretes a large amount of xanthosine into the medium. By growth and tracer studies it was possible to demonstrate that this mutant was blocked in the synthesis of guanine from the common intermediate and that the xanthosine shunted into the medium was arising by synthesis *de novo* presumably from an intermediate which was failing to reach the guanine derivative. The organism still was able to convert the exogenously supplied guanine into adenine derivatives and the existence of some alternate pathway for the interconversion of adenine and guanine derivatives is demonstrated.

It is obvious from this scheme that exogenously supplied purines can compete with those arising biosynthetically. In some instances they can

guanine which has been strongly emphasized by Bennett and Skipper who tested a large series of tumors. An appreciable conversion of 2,6-diaminopurine into tumor nucleic acid guanine is to be particularly noted in view of the metabolic relationships of diaminopurine and guanine. There is also a small utilization of hypoxanthine in a number of tumors.

From the point of view of chemotherapy it is to be expected that the more complex the substrate antagonized the fewer will be the processes affected. If processes particularly important to a given cell can be attacked a greater selectivity may be possible. With the recognition that there are pronounced quantitative differences between the purine metabolisms of various normal tissues and of tumors it can be hoped that preferential interferences with specific metabolic steps of purine metabolism can be a fruitful approach. As knowledge about metabolic pathways and the function of known antimetabolites accumulates it may become possible to take intentional advantage of that knowledge in developing antimetabolites. At present it is possible only to suggest general types of compounds. From scores or hundreds of examples meticulous testing must find those which may prove to be effective.

There is no *a priori* reason for a purine analog to be an antagonist. Since free purines have not been allotted any place in the metabolic schemes there should be nothing with which such an antagonist can compete. There is a fortunate lack of specificity of the enzymes which are involved in the incorporation of purine bases into the more complex molecules however and there is evidence that several inhibitors exert their effects only after they have been metabolized to more complex derivatives.

There are several unnatural compounds which have apparently been anabolized into large molecules. With one of these notably 8-aza-guanine there has been a clear demonstration that it can be incorporated into nucleic acids in lieu of guanine. Its ribose phosphate derivatives can be isolated from TMV synthesized in its presence (25). Two aza-

presumably the 2- and 3-isomers have been demonstrated for a similar incorporation of the pyrimidine 2-thiothymine for the incorporation of 5-bromouracil into nucleic acids (28). In such cases the polynucleotide base could fail to perform its proper function as an "abolite."

One such compound found in nature is converted to a nucleotide for several enzymes. It is not known whether a nucleotide has been dem-

which have the ability to interconvert in either direction but which favor the direct utilization of the exogenous purine when it is in limited supply. From the limited data available for man on the incorporation of purines into leukemic white cells both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (19) it appears that man's position is intermediate in this species "spectrum."

2.6 Diaminopurine is another purine which is readily utilized by all species tested. It is always transformed into the usual nucleic acid purines predominantly into polynucleotide guanine, sometimes even

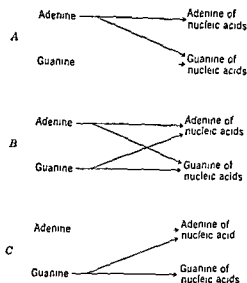


FIG. 2

more readily than is exogenous guanine. It is transformed into adenine derivatives to a degree similar to that observed for exogenous guanine in the particular species. In connection with this biochemical similarity of diaminopurine and guanine it should be pointed out that each carries functional groups in the 2 and 6 positions.

When the limited data now available on the incorporation of exogenous purines into various tumors (6-8) is considered one can already recognize some characteristics in addition to the generally limited incorporations of preformed purines. There are numerous small differences in the relative incorporations of the several purines tested but like the differences between organs of the host these are at the stage where they can be tabulated but not discussed. Certain characteristics sufficiently consistent to be noteworthy include a low incorporation of



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Diaminopurine which has not been found in nature is converted to derivatives which can serve as substrates for several enzymes. It is not only incorporated into a nucleotide—such a nucleotide has been dem

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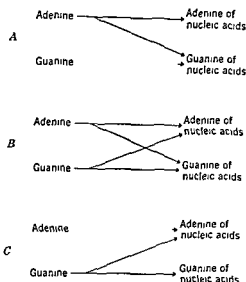


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more properly be considered as a competitor of the transformation of a hypoxanthine derivative into either guanine or adenine derivatives. If the "common intermediate" is formulated as a hypoxanthine derivative and if 6-mercaptopurine is incorporated into an analogous derivative by the same enzyme which incorporates hypoxanthine, the competition between these two derivatives could lead to the observed results.

The toxicity of diaminopurine can be blocked by 6-mercaptopurine and vice versa, and these facts can be correlated with the above postulations. The 6-mercaptopurine compound would be an analog of both the adenine derivative which is converted to a coenzyme and of the diaminopurine intermediate which leads to the "2-amino coenzyme." The 6-mercaptopurine derivative could completely inhibit the synthesis of the adenine metabolite from adenine or the toxic 2-amino derivative from diaminopurine, and the organism would make the coenzyme by an alternate route similar to that used by the diaminopurine-resistant mutant. The reversal of the mercaptopurine toxicity by diaminopurine could be due to diaminopurine serving as the source of an additional supply of the natural purines.

One of the most toxic purine derivatives studied is the riboside of purine itself. Studies of its metabolism have shown that it can be converted to the adenine and guanine of polynucleotides, but that this compound is not incorporated unchanged (18). The position of entry of purine riboside into the metabolic scheme is uncertain, but it involves the replacement of a hydrogen in the 6-position by a functional group, possibly in analogy to the similar replacement of a hydrogen in the 2-position which occurs in the conversion of adenine into guanine. In addition, three nucleotides containing unsubstituted purine appear in the soluble nucleotides of the liver, and it is now thought that these are the 5-mono-, di-, and triphosphates. Here again it is not the formation of abnormal nucleic acids, but it may well be the formation of analogs of normal nucleoside phosphates or of coenzymes which is responsible for the toxicity. The observation by Biesele (9) that the toxicity of purine riboside (to tissues in culture) is most effectively blocked by 5-phosphate derivatives of adenosine can be construed as support of this hypothesis.

There has as yet been no demonstration that a purine antimetabolite acts by incorporation into a DNA, though this possibility still must be considered. The incorporation of at least one purine analog into an RNA has been observed, presumably with the production of an abnormal nonfunctioning RNA. If RNA is a cytoplasmic factor responsible for cellular heredity and is the metabolically active "working" nucleic

onstrated in the acid soluble fraction from rat liver (31)—but it is further transformed into a guanine derivative which in turn reaches the polynucleotide. Transformation into adenine derivatives which also occurs may be via the guanine derivative which must be formed but the possibilities for a more direct pathway are not excluded. Just prior to the original observation that it is a metabolite (7) diaminopurine was found (14) to be a potent antimetabolite. There is a score of systems in which it leads to marked inhibitory effects and in most instances the inhibitory action has been shown to be blocked by adenine (11). In a cooperative study with Hitching and Elion an extensive series of experiments was carried out on *L. casei* and a diaminopurine resistant mutant of it<sup>1</sup>. There was no obvious influence of diaminopurine on polynucleotide synthesis; under appropriate conditions it could even supply all the purine requirement for guanine and adenine of the polynucleotides.

The general tendency of organisms is to convert diaminopurine into guanine; at the same time diaminopurine exerts an inhibitory action by competition with adenine. These facts are rationalized through the observation that the same enzyme which incorporates adenine into a nucleotide is sufficiently nonspecific to carry out the initial incorporation of diaminopurine into an analogous derivative. On one hand the purine moiety of this diaminopurine derivative is transformed into guanine. On the other hand the diaminopurinenucleotide moiety is built by another nonspecific enzyme into something which is effectively a 2-amino analog of an adenine derivative with which it is then in competition. It is postulated that this product is some essential adenine-containing nucleotide coenzyme. This concept receives additional support from the finding that the adenosine kinase which will phosphorylate adenosine in the 5-position will similarly phosphorylate diaminopurine riboside. In fact in the proper enzyme system a triphosphate derivative—a 2-amino ATP—can be formed (22).

Another antimetabolite which can apparently be metabolized to a nucleotide is 6-mercaptapurine. Despite its similarity in structure to adenine it does not seem to compete directly with adenine derivatives; xanthine is a more effective reversing agent (20). In the diaminopurine-resistant mutant of *L. casei* which is characterized by extensive loss of the ability to incorporate adenine or diaminopurine, 6-mercaptapurine is still able to exert its inhibitory activity. The results of Elion *et al.* (15) and subsequent tracer studies (4) suggest that 6-mercaptapurine can

<sup>1</sup> The results of this work have been summarized (11).

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acid it should be a favorable target. There are the several lines of evidence which suggest that coenzymes are susceptible to agents affecting purine metabolism. Since an imbalance of aerobic and anaerobic glycolysis has been implicated in the neoplastic process (29-30) it is not unreasonable to expect that the balance of coenzymes regulating electron and proton transfer may be more uniquely sensitive in such tissues and the often ignored possibilities of antimetabolite interference with the purine moieties of nucleotide coenzymes deserve more emphasis.

The patterns of incorporation of purines into RNA seem to mirror qualitatively their incorporation into DNA and the purines of the coenzymes must arise from the same purine supplies. Thus the anabolic patterns of RNA which are the most accessible for study may serve as a guide to chemotherapeutic interferences with any of the three general purine containing targets.

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## Uracil Antagonists As Inhibitors of Transplantable Tumors

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The search for exploitable biochemical disparities between tumor tissue on the one hand and normal tissue on the other so far has not revealed any major biochemical disparities such disparities as have been found have generally been small quantitative differences. In the field of nucleic acid derivatives some differences between the majority of tumors and normal tissues in the utilization of guanine have been reported by Bennett *et al* (1) and it is possible that some quantitative differences in the utilization of hypoxanthine may account for the antineoplastic activity of 6 mercaptopurine (5). Recently Rutman *et al* (13) have called attention to striking disparities in the incorporation of uracil, between liver and hepatoma. Leibman and Heidelberger (11) have pursued this observation and studied the incorporation of labeled uracil into the Flexner Jobling carcinoma and normal tissues in the rat. These workers found that contrary to the results of earlier investigations (12, 13) uracil was incorporated in some normal tissues as well as in the carcinoma. The incorporation appeared to be related to the rate of growth and was most prominent in intestinal epithelium.

In any case the possible existence of an important quantitative difference in uracil incorporation between tumor and most normal tissues suggested a reinvestigation of the problem of the effects of uracil antagonists on transplantable neoplasms.

Our own investigation of uracil antagonists began over a decade ago with a study of the effects of alterations of the functional groups in the uracil structure (9). The replacement of one or both of the hydroxyl groups of uracil by mercapto groups produces antagonists. The competitive relationship between thiouracil and uracil was studied by Strandkov and Wyss (16). In addition to alterations in functional





will be observed that in both the folic acid containing medium (PFA) and in the thymine containing medium (PT) isobarbituric acid is competitive with uracil

Studies of this kind led to the selection of a number of more or less potent uracil antagonists. It was of interest to study these for their possible inhibitory effects on transplantable rodent tumors. Table I shows the results of some of these studies. It will be seen that barbituric acid, thiouracil, the hydrazinopyrimidine, and orotic acid are compounds

TABLE I  
EFFECTS OF URACIL ANALOGS ON SARCOMA 180

Compound	Dose mg/kg	Effect	
Barbituric acid	600	—	
2,6-Dithiouracil	250	—	
2-Hydrazino-4-hydroxypyrimidine	500	—	
2-Thioorotic acid	500	—	
Isobarbituric acid	500	—	†
2-Thiouracil	500	± —	†
2-Thiocytosine	125	—	†
	250	—	†
2,6-Dichloropyrimidine	125	—	†
	250	—	†
6-Azauracil	125	—	†
	500	—	†
6-Azacytosine	125	± —	†

Negative data (see references 14 and 15)

† Unpublished experiments with D. A. Clarke and C. C. Stock

which gave negative results (14, 15) on sarcoma 180. The results of hitherto unpublished studies with other uracil antagonists on the same tumor are also given. Isobarbituric acid at the highest level tested (100 mg/kg) had no inhibitory effect. Of the various uracil antagonists tested, only thiouracil in one instance and 6-azacytosine in one instance gave as much as a plus-minus inhibition. It appeared unlikely that uracil antagonism would provide a means for a broad attack on transplantable tumors. Nevertheless, further investigations of uracil antagonism were undertaken.

Early work had dealt chiefly with efforts to prepare antagonists by modifications of the functional groups of uracil itself, keeping the pyri-

groups per se the possibility of producing uracil antagonists by the addition of further functional substituents in the 5 and 6 positions of the pyrimidine moiety was investigated. For the most part the introduction of additional substituents in the 6 position such as hydroxyl methyl and amino had the effect of diminishing the activity of uracil of uracil like compounds and of uracil antagonists. The introduction of additional functional groups in the 5 position however produced compounds with very striking effects (7-9). Thus 5-bromouracil was found to be an antagonist of thymine under some conditions but to simulate thymine

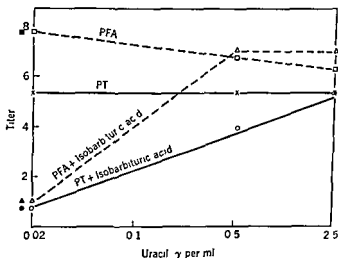


FIG. 1. Isobarbituric acid as an antagonist of uracil in the growth of *Lactobacillus casei*. Growth is represented by the titer (ordinate). The media are those used previously (8).

under special conditions. A very large literature has grown up in recent years around the incorporation of bromouracil moieties in place of thymine in the deoxyribonucleic acids of various species (3, 17, 18). The introduction of a nitro group produced a folic acid antagonist. 5-Amino uracil was a sort of hybrid folic acid and thymine antagonist (8)—at least it failed to give clear cut competitive results with either of the nutrilites. 5-Hydroxyuracil (isobarbituric acid) was found to be a rather strong inhibitor, the action of which at first was somewhat mystifying since its inhibition was not reversed by either thymine or folic acid. But on investigation it was found to be a competitive antagonist of uracil (7). This is shown in Fig. 1 which depicts the growth of *Lactobacillus casei* in the presence and absence of isobarbituric acid and uracil. It

cytosine in *L. casei*. Approximately 5  $\gamma$  of azauracil or 250  $\gamma$  of azacytosine produces nearly complete inhibition of this organism in a medium in which uracil is absent. The addition of uracil restores growth in a competitive fashion (Fig. 4). The results with sarcoma 180 previously referred to showed no very pronounced activity with either one of these compounds although there was a suggestion of activity with azacytosine. When the same compounds were tested against adenocarcinoma 755 however quite different results were obtained. This perhaps is shown

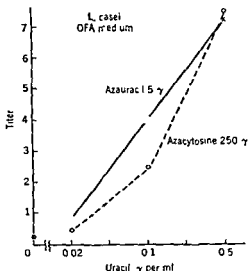


FIG. 4. 6-Azapyrimidines as antagonists of uracil in the growth of *Lactobacillus casei*. Growth is represented by the titer (ordinate). The media are those used previously (8).

most clearly by reference to Table II which gives the results of treatment of tumor bearing animals with various levels of 6-azauracil. It will be observed that 125 mg/kg showed an appreciable inhibition of tumor growth which was increased at a dosage of 250 mg/kg. At 500 mg/kg however the tumor growth was completely suppressed and all the animals recovered from the tumor. This is quite a striking result, since in our experience only one or two other compounds for example 6-mercaptopurine produce effects of a similar magnitude.

Thus although uracil antagonism must be regarded as a means of tumor inhibition which is not general it is capable of producing interesting results in at least one specific transplantable tumor. It will be of

midine ring intact. A new group of uracil antagonists of some interest has now been prepared by alteration of the ring system itself. Of particular interest are the 1,2,4 triazines (6 azapyrimidines) (4). Interest in these was aroused by the finding that the asymmetrical triazine analog (10) of the pyrimidine antimalarial pyrimethamine (6) as well as the

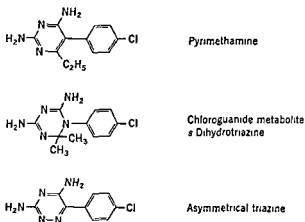


FIG. 2. Compounds with antimalarial activity

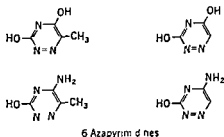


FIG. 3. Asymmetrical triazines analogous to natural pyrimidines

symmetrical dihydrotriazine (2) is rather active as an antimalarial. Thus the relationship suggested by the rather obvious structural analogy (Fig. 2) finds expression in the biological effects also.

For this reason the syntheses of pyrimidine analogs in both the asymmetrical and symmetrical triazine series have been undertaken. The pertinent 6 azapyrimidines (as triazines) are shown in Fig. 3. These and a number of interesting intermediates are being studied currently. 6-Aza-uracil has been found to be a competitive antagonist of uracil. Strangely enough, azacytosine appears to be an antagonist of uracil rather than of

## The Specific Action of Azaserine on Enzymes Concerned with Purine Biosynthesis<sup>1</sup>

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There have been many instances in previous investigations where the use of metabolic inhibitors has been of great value in clarifying complex physiological responses or a sequence of biochemical reactions. In a general way these compounds have been classified into two main categories: competitive and noncompetitive inhibitors. Iodoacetic acid and fluoride are two outstanding examples of the latter type. Iodoacetic acid serves as an alkylating agent of sulfhydryl groups on enzymes, i.e. triose phosphate dehydrogenase (21). Inhibition by iodoacetate permitted physiologists to demonstrate that muscular contraction depended on the breakdown of phosphate containing compounds (phosphocreatine and ATP) and that the formation of lactic acid was associated only indirectly with contraction (28). Fluoride is thought to inhibit enzymes by virtue of its ability to act as a complexing agent of the divalent cations, Ca and Mg, which are essential activators of certain enzymes, as enolase and many phosphatases (29). Noncompetitive inhibition is therefore characterized by an interaction of inhibitor with some component of the enzyme system and not involving the substrate.

A third metabolic inhibitor of importance, malonic acid, is the classical example of an inhibitor of the competitive type. It was shown over twenty years ago by Quastel and Wooldridge (30) that malonic acid

<sup>1</sup> This work has been supported by grants-in aid from the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, United States Public Health Service, the National Science Foundation, and the Damon Runyon Memorial Fund for Cancer Research.

interest to test other uracil antagonists and further members of the triazine series and to explore their effects on a spectrum of transplantable tumors

TABLE II

## EFFECTS OF 6-AZARACIL ON ADENOCARCINOMA 755

(In each experiment 6 tumor bearing animals were treated with the dose indicated 6 times in 10 days starting on the eighth day after implantation. The tumors were dissected and weighed on the twenty first day. The number index represents the number of tumors found at the end of the experiment. The size index is the ratio of weights of experimental to control tumors.)

Dose mg/kg	Tumor index		Toxic deaths
	Number	Size	
125	6/6	0.75	0
250	5/6	0.40	0
500	0/6	0.0	1/6

3,5-Dihydroxy-1,2,4-triazine

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cause the regression of the Crocker sarcoma 180 in mice (39) and extend the life span of mice suffering from certain types of leukemia (9). A point of additional interest is that there is a potentiation of effect in some cases where azaserine and 6 mercaptopurine are administered together (9).

During the last few years we have carried out a program in this laboratory concerned with testing the effects of antimetabolites on an enzymatic system which synthesizes inosinic acid from its elementary precursors—glycine formate bicarbonate glutamine aspartic acid ribose 5 phosphate and ATP. Our own interest in azaserine was stimulated by the observation of Skipper and his colleagues (35) that administration of azaserine to mice reduced the incorporation of radioactive glycine and formate into tissue nucleic acids. At the suggestion of Dr. Alexander Moore of the Mellon Institute we carried out preliminary trials with this compound with the view in mind that it might interfere with enzymatic reactions concerned with the incorporation into inosinic acid of formyl groups which are metabolically derived from serine. Such however was not found to be the case and further attempts to relate azaserine to competitive inhibition of serine metabolism were discouraged.

On testing azaserine for its effect on inosinic acid synthesis with extracts of pigeon liver it was found that inosinic acid formation was completely inhibited at relatively low concentrations of the antibiotic. Certain intermediates of purine biosynthesis accumulated in considerably larger amounts than in the absence of azaserine. These compounds were isolated and identified as glycinamide ribotide (GAR) and a (N formyl) glycinamide ribotide (FGAR) (20). When the latter compound was incubated with the accessory substrates—aspartic acid bicarbonate glutamine and formate and pigeon liver enzymes—inosinic acid was readily formed. In the presence of low concentrations of azaserine synthesis was drastically reduced. When the concentration of aspartic acid bicarbonate and glutamine was increased one at a time it was found that the synthesis of inosinic acid from formylglycinamide ribotide could be partially restored by the addition of glutamine at higher concentrations. At this higher concentration of glutamine synthesis could again be reduced by increasing the azaserine concentration (Fig. 1). These experiments were the first indication that azaserine was behaving as an inhibitor of inosinic acid biosynthesis by virtue of its action as an analog of glutamine. The structural relationship of glutamine and azaserine is shown in Fig. 2.

inhibits the conversion of succinic to fumaric acid by action on the enzyme system succinic dehydrogenase. Moreover, the degree of inhibition is not related to the concentration of malonic acid alone but to the ratio of the concentration of succinic and malonic acids. Malonic acid is sufficiently similar to succinic acid in structure to combine reversibly with the active site on the enzyme. This inhibitor was invaluable in studying the Krebs tricarboxylic acid cycle.

The principle of competitive inhibition has been an important concept in the development of the field of intermediary metabolism. An interesting early observation was that of Woods (43, 44) who showed that the bacteriostatic effect of sulfanilamide is competitively reversed by *p*-aminobenzoic acid, a compound not previously known to possess any biochemical function. It was suggested that the sulfonamide, a structural analog of *p*-aminobenzoic acid, served as a competitive inhibitor of a bacterial enzyme system for which *p*-aminobenzoic acid was an essential cofactor. This search for structural analogs of metabolites has been extended with considerable success by Shive and his co-workers (42). Using structural analogs they have been able to relate essential cofactors to specific functions in microbial metabolism.

Analog metabolite inhibition has had widespread application in the development of cancer chemotherapy. Special emphasis has been placed on the synthesis of analogs of cofactors, purines, pyrimidines, or amino acids in the belief that the formation and development of new cells, whether cancerous or normal, are primarily dependent on the synthesis of nucleic acids and proteins and on the cofactors involved in these processes. The development of cancer research along these lines received its impetus from the investigations of Farber *et al.* (10) who demonstrated that aminopterin was an antagonist of folic acid and as such increased the life span of children suffering from acute leukemia. Since this report, folic acid has been recognized as a cofactor specifically involved in both amino acid metabolism and nucleic acid synthesis.

A whole host of antimetabolites have been synthesized and tested for their chemotherapeutic effects in both tumors and leukemia. Among the most important of these may be listed 2,6-diaminopurine (6), 8-azaguanine (2), and 6-mercaptopurine (7, 36). In some cases compounds isolated from natural sources have had beneficial effects as antimetabolites. Azaserine (O-diazoacetyl-L-serine) is an outstanding example of a compound isolated as an antibiotic and later found to be effective as an antimetabolite in tumor development and in leukemia. Although the results of the effects of this compound have not been communicated in full, preliminary reports indicate that administration of azaserine will



cause the regression of the Crocker sarcoma 180 in mice (39) and extend the life span of mice suffering from certain types of leukemia (9). A point of additional interest is that there is a potentiation of effect in some cases where azaserine and 6 mercaptopurine are administered together (9).

During the last few years we have carried out a program in this laboratory concerned with testing the effects of antimetabolites on an enzymatic system which synthesizes inosinic acid from its elementary precursor—glycine formate bicarbonate glutamine aspartic acid ribose-5 phosphate and ATP. Our own interest in azaserine was stimulated by the observation of Skipper and his colleagues (35) that administration of azaserine to mice reduced the incorporation of radio active glycine and formate into tissue nucleic acids. At the suggestion of Dr. Alexander Moore of the Mellon Institute we carried out preliminary trials with this compound with the view in mind that it might interfere with enzymatic reactions concerned with the incorporation into inosinic acid of formyl groups which are metabolically derived from serine. Such however was not found to be the case and further attempts to relate azaserine to competitive inhibition of serine metabolism were discouraged.

On testing azaserine for its effect on inosinic acid synthesis with extracts of pigeon liver it was found that inosinic acid formation was completely inhibited at relatively low concentrations of the antibiotic. Certain intermediates of purine biosynthesis accumulated in considerably larger amounts than in the absence of azaserine. These compounds were isolated and identified as glycinamide ribotide (GAR) and  $\alpha$ -(N-formyl) glycinamide ribotide (FGAR) (20). When the latter compound was incubated with the accessory substrates—aspartic acid bicarbonate glutamine and formate and pigeon liver enzymes—inosinic acid was readily formed. In the presence of low concentrations of azaserine synthesis was drastically reduced. When the concentration of aspartic acid bicarbonate and glutamine was increased one at a time it was found that the synthesis of inosinic acid from formylglycinamide ribotide could be partially restored by the addition of glutamine at higher concentrations. At this higher concentration of glutamine synthesis could again be reduced by increasing the azaserine concentration (Fig. 1). These experiments were the first indication that azaserine was behaving as an inhibitor of inosinic acid biosynthesis by virtue of its action as an analog of glutamine. The structural relationship of glutamine and azaserine is shown in Fig. 2.

### Enzymatic Steps Concerned with the Biosynthesis of Inosinic Acid

In order to discuss further experiments on azaserine to be presented in a later section a brief summary is made here of the work which has been carried out in connection with the enzymatic biosynthesis of inosinic acid. An understanding of the metabolic precursors of inosinic

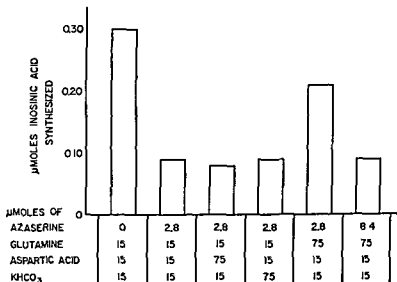


FIG 1 Ability of L-glutamine to overcome the inhibitory action of L-azaserine in the synthesis of IMP from FGAR

acid is a prerequisite for enzymatic studies. Through a series of studies beginning in 1946 (5, 25, 33, 37, 38) it was shown (Fig 3) that glycine is the precursor of carbon atoms 4 and 5 and nitrogen atom 7 of the purine ring. CO<sub>2</sub> is the precursor of carbon atom 6, formate of carbon atoms 2 and 8, glutamine (amide N) of nitrogen atoms 3 and 9, and aspartic acid of nitrogen atom 1. Ribose 5-phosphate should also be

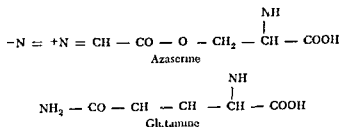


FIG 2 Structural similarities between azaserine and glutamine

added to this list of precursors since inosinic acid is the first complete purine structure to be formed *de novo* (16) and thus requires that some metabolic precursors should be ribotide compounds

By isolation of individual enzymatic components from avian liver it has been possible to link these precursors together through a series of reactions and intermediates which account for the step by step formation of inosinic acid (Fig 4) References have been made at the individual steps of the synthesis to the investigators who have been concerned with their description. Certain features of the scheme still need further clarification. Although synthetic 5 phosphoribosylamine is required for synthesis of glycinamide ribotide from glycine and ATP (14)

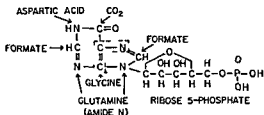


FIG 3 Precursors of inosinic acid

at the time of this writing it has not been possible to isolate this compound from the reaction of 5 phosphoribosylpyrophosphate and glutamine. These latter two compounds react with each other yielding glutamic acid and pyrophosphate (14)

GAR may be formylated to FGAR by several reactions. Formate the  $\beta$  carbon of serine and carbon atom 2 of inosinic acid are all precursors of the "active formyl" compounds which directly donate the one carbon unit.

The structure of 5 amino 4 imidazole (N succinylcarboxamide) ribotide (SAICAR) is at present tentative. There are certain features of its chemical properties which must be resolved before this structure can be taken as final. Until the enzyme which splits this new intermediate (SAICAR) into its products is freed of the enzyme fumarase it will not be possible to determine whether fumarate or malate is the actual compound formed.

5 Formamido 4 imidazolecarboxamide has been formed chemically from 5 amino 4 imidazolecarboxamide ribotide and formic acid and may be converted into inosinic acid by action of the newly discovered enzyme inosinase. To date however it has not been possible to demonstrate

### Enzymatic Steps Concerned with the Biosynthesis of Inosinic Acid

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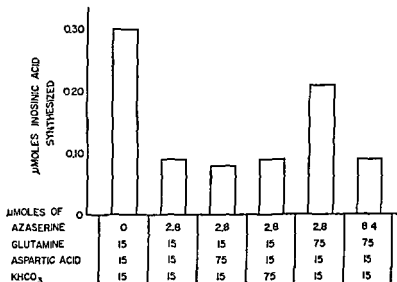


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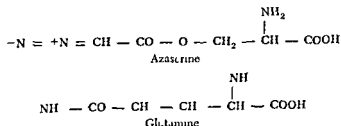


FIG 2 Structural similarities between azaserine and glutamine

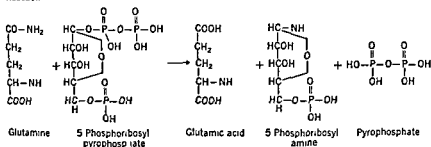
the accumulation of this compound when 5 amino-4 imidazolecarboxamide is reacted with serine and TPN and a compound of the folic acid series. This latter reaction is a complicated process involving at least three individual enzymes. These enzymes have not been freed sufficiently of inosimicase which is active in low concentrations and which converts the 5 formamido-4 imidazolecarboxamide ribotide almost quantitatively into inosinic acid.

#### Location of the Site of Azaserine Inhibition

With the individual steps of purine biosynthesis *de novo* thus described it has been possible to determine the step at which azaserine exerts its effect as an inhibitor.

TABLE I

Reaction



Vessel	Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	Glutamine $\mu\text{M}$	Glutamic acid formed $m\mu\text{M}$
1	0	1	124
2	1	1	103
3	10	1	71

In Tables I to V is shown the effect of azaserine on five of the most representative steps of this biosynthetic process. As would be anticipated from the earlier experiments azaserine inhibited the enzymatic reaction concerned with the formation of FGAM from FGAR, glutamine and ATP. This enzymatic step was inhibited at relatively low concentrations of the antibiotic. Other reactions were inhibited to a limited extent but only at much higher concentrations of azaserine. It is noteworthy that the other step at which glutamine is involved (PRPP + glutamine  $\rightarrow$  glutamic acid + inorganic pyrophosphate + PRA) is not seriously affected by azaserine. It is concluded therefore that the effect of aza-



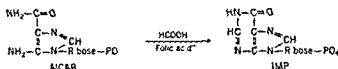
serine on the *de novo* synthesis of purines is entirely due to its inhibition of the conversion of FGAR to FGAM

### Properties of the Enzyme

The enzyme responsible for the conversion of FGAR to FGAM has been purified from chicken and from pigeon liver approximately fifty fold. The reaction requires glutamine,  $Mg$  and  $K$  ions and ATP (Table

TABLE V

Reaction



Vessel	Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	IMP formed $\text{m}\mu\text{M}$
1	0	63
2	1	65
3	2.5	69

TABLE VI

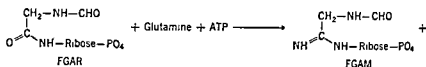
System	FGAM $\text{m}\mu\text{M}$
Complete	49
-ATP	1
-K	24
-Mg	1
-Glutamine	4
-FGAR	1

VI) Glutamic acid, ADP and inorganic phosphate are products of the reaction

The assay for the above enzyme is a relatively simple procedure. The enzyme system is incubated for a short time (5 to 10 minutes) with the appropriate substrates and the reaction is stopped by heating the vessel in a boiling water bath for 1 minute. The contents of the flask are then reacted with a second enzyme which converts FGAM to 5-aminimidazole ribotide (AIR). This latter compound is an arylamine which may be determined by a colorimetric procedure according to the method of Bratton and Marshall (3).

TABLE II

Reaction



Vessel	Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	Glutamine $\mu\text{M}$	FGAM synthesized from FGAR $\text{m}\mu\text{M}$
1	0	2	17.2
2	0.2	2	6.7
3	2.0	2	0.9

TABLE III

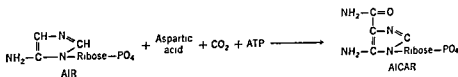
Reaction



Vessel	Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	Glutamine $\mu\text{M}$	AIR synthesized from FGAM $\text{m}\mu\text{M}$
4	0	0	24.8
5	0.2	0	23.8
6	2.0	0	15.0
7	2.0	3	16.8

TABLE IV

Reaction



Vessel	Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	AICAR formed $\text{m}\mu\text{M}$
1	0	56
2	2	60



and involved factors other than a simple competitive relationship between the inhibitor and glutamine

In Fig 5 experiments are reported in which the concentrations of glutamine and azaserine are varied over a hundredfold range but the ratio of their concentrations is kept constant at a value of 10. At the lowest range of metabolite and inhibitor concentrations the reaction was inhibited 50%. At the higher concentrations the inhibition of reaction was 69% of the uninhibited controls. This relative constancy of inhibition over such a broad range of concentration of substances is further evidence of the competitive relationship of these two compounds

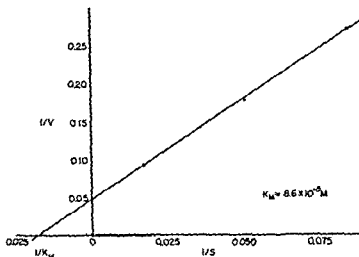


FIG. 6 Determination of the  $K_M$  value of FGAR in the reaction  $\text{FGAR} \rightarrow \text{FGAM}$

In a third series of experiments analysis of the kinetics of the reaction have been made according to the classical procedures of Michaelis and Menton and Lineweaver and Burk. From the data shown in Fig 6 calculation has been of the  $K_M$  value of FGAR. This value is approximately  $1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M}$ . In order to determine the  $K_M$  value of glutamine and the  $K_I$  value of azaserine experiments were carried out in which the enzyme was incubated with excess FGAR and varying amounts of glutamine. In accordance with the method of Lineweaver and Burk  $1/V$  was plotted against  $1/S$  at three different levels of azaserine concentration (Fig 7). The intercepts of the resulting curve with the abscissa gives the value of the apparent  $K_M$  ( $K_F$ ) at the different levels of inhibitor.

### Mechanism of Azaserine Inhibition of the Enzyme $\text{FGAR} \rightarrow \text{FGAM}$

The competition between azaserine and glutamine for the enzyme  $\text{FGAR} \rightarrow \text{FGAM}$  is well demonstrated in Table VII and Fig 5. As shown by the data obtained in these experiments the degree of inhibition of the enzyme reaction is a function of the ratio of the concentration of

TABLE VII

Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	Glutamine $\mu\text{M}$	FGAM $\text{m}\mu\text{M}$
—	2	56.5
0.15	2	26.0
0.15	4	38.0
0.15	6	44.0
0.15	8	46.5
0.15	10	46.5

glutamine to azaserine. At low ratios inhibition of reaction is virtually complete. As the ratio of glutamine to azaserine increases the extent of inhibition decreases (Table VI). At a ratio of substrate to inhibitor of approximately 18 the degree of inhibition is 50%. In experiments so far concluded it has not been possible as yet to restore completely the *full* enzymatic activity of the system by increasing the glutamine concentration. These preliminary results indicated that possibly the inhibition of the reaction by azaserine was more complicated than initially supposed.

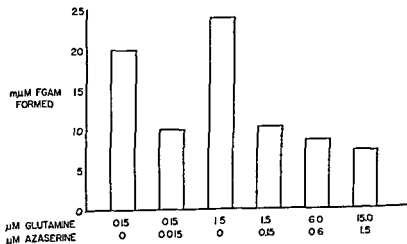


FIG 5 The inhibition of reaction as a function of the ratio of glutamine to azaserine over a large range of concentrations of materials

serine inhibition are still obscure and that the significance of the values will have to undergo re examination. Since these constants are some measure of the relative potency of azaserine as an inhibitor of this reaction they may have some practical value.

The characteristics of the data shown in Fig 7 also confirm previous ideas concerning the nature of the inhibition of azaserine. According to the comments of Friedenwald and Maengwyn Davies (13) these data indicate that the elements of both competitive and noncompetitive inhibition are involved in the action of azaserine on the enzyme. The non

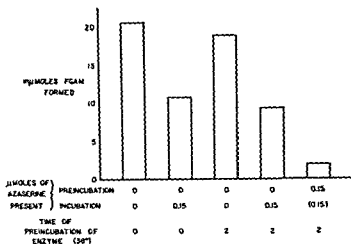


FIG 9 Effect of preincubation with azaserine on the activity of the enzyme system responsible for the conversion of FGAR to FGAM. All vessels were incubated for 5 minutes at 38° with the following components of the basic system: 0.10  $\mu$ M FGAR, 2  $\mu$ M glutamine, 2  $\mu$ M ATP.

competitive aspects of azaserine inhibition can be demonstrated by experiments in which the enzyme is preincubated with azaserine (with and without glutamine) prior to addition of the other substrates of the main incubation system, i.e. FGAR and ATP. As shown in Fig 9, preincubation of the enzyme for so short a time as 2 minutes with a low amount of azaserine results in such damage to the enzyme that little or no reaction takes place on addition of the other substrates (including glutamine) and the main incubation carried out for 5 minutes. Similar preincubation of the enzyme in the absence of substrates or inhibitor did not significantly affect its activity or the effect of azaserine on this activity during the main incubation period.

When these values for  $K_P$  in turn were plotted against inhibitor concentration a  $K_M$  value of  $6.15 \times 10^{-4}$  M for glutamine and a  $K_I$  value of  $3.4 \times 10^{-5}$  M for azaserine were obtained (Fig 8). The ratio of  $K_M$  to  $K_I$  is 18 a value which indicates that azaserine is a fairly potent inhibitor of the reaction. These kinetic data are presented with the realization that the theoretical interpretations behind the mechanism of aza

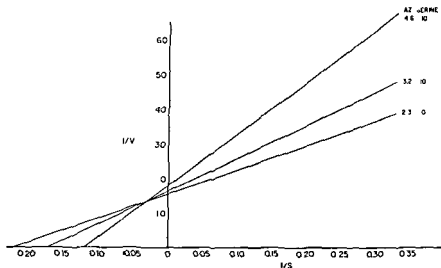


FIG 7 Lineweaver and Burk plot showing type of inhibition

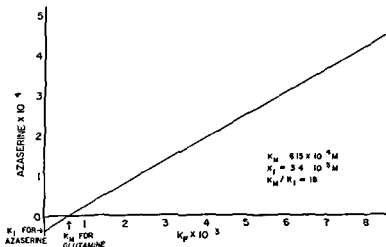


FIG 8 Determination of  $K_I$  and  $K_M/K_I$  for azaserine

that extracts of *E. coli* which had assimilated formate  $C^{14}$  in short term experiments in the presence of azaserine accumulated significant amounts of  $C^{14}$  labeled formylglycinimide riboside and the ribotide. Only at much higher concentrations of azaserine was there an interference of amino acid metabolism. Their opinion is the same as ours—that the primary site of azaserine inhibition *in vivo* is interference of purine synthesis *de novo*.

The understanding of the mechanism of azaserine inhibition of this system could have some practical implications in the method of administering this compound clinically. Possibly both the therapeutic and toxic effects of azaserine may be due to its irreversible and pronounced effect on the enzyme  $FGAR \rightarrow FGAM$ . In view however of the role of glutamine in preventing inhibition of azaserine it might be of interest to determine whether both the beneficial and detrimental effects of azaserine could be controlled by administering it with varying amounts of glutamine so that both compounds glutamine and azaserine reach the intracellular enzyme sites at the same time. Glutamine administered after azaserine would probably play little role since glutamine behave as a protective agent and cannot reverse the detrimental effects of the inhibitor once they have been allowed to take place.

The enzymatic approach to the study of the mechanism of action of drugs and antimetabolites could assume increasing importance now that many of the fundamental reactions of intermediary metabolism have been studied and elucidated. The report by Feigelson *et al* (11) that azaguanine inhibits adenosine metabolism by combining irreversibly with the enzyme adenosine deaminase is another example of the use which can be made of enzymatic systems in the understanding of the action of chemotherapeutic agents.

The studies reported herein were primarily responsible for directing attention to the fact that azaserine is a competitive inhibitor of glutamine. Since that time other analogs of glutamine have been synthesized which are much more potent inhibitors of both physiological systems and the enzymatic reaction described above. The correspondence of physiological and enzymatic response is striking and offers further evidence for the usefulness of the enzymatic method as a means of screening rapidly a large series of compounds whose relationship as an antimetabolite to a given metabolite might be suspected.

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In a last series of experiments shown in Fig. 10 a study was made on the effect of glutamine in protecting the enzyme against the damage produced by azaserine during this preincubation. The enzyme in all vessels of this experiment was preincubated for 2 minutes in the presence of varying combinations of inhibitor and glutamine. In the control vessel to which no inhibitor was added either during the preincubation or incubation period 39  $\mu\text{M}$  of FGAM were found. If azaserine was included only in the incubation period the synthesis of FGAM was reduced to 23.5  $\mu\text{M}$ . If on the other hand as shown in column 3 the azaserine

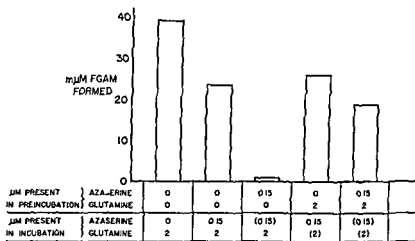


FIG. 10. Protection by glutamine of inhibition caused by azaserine. Basic system added for incubation: 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  FGAR, 2  $\mu\text{M}$  ATP.

serine was added during the preincubation period but the glutamine not included until later the synthesis dropped to 1  $\mu\text{M}$ . When as shown in the last column glutamine was included in the vessel with azaserine during the preincubation period the amount of FGAM formed was 19  $\mu\text{M}$ —a value considerably greater than 1 and only slightly less than 23.5.

These data demonstrate that glutamine acts essentially by competing with azaserine for an enzyme site and thus prevents the enzyme from reacting in (what now seems) an irreversible manner with the inhibitor. In the absence of glutamine azaserine apparently reacts rapidly with the enzyme causing its inactivation.

These findings could possibly have some importance in the understanding of how azaserine behaves toward the intact physiological system. The interesting observation has been made by Tomisek *et al.* (40)

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## Nucleotide Metabolism and Cancer Chemotherapy

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There appear to be two theoretical approaches to the elimination of the leukemias as medical problems (1) prevention of the "mutagenic" events which result in leukemic cells and (2) development of means for long term repression of leukemic cell division or the outright destruction of these neoplastic cells in their numerous sites of sequestration without excessive damage to vital normal cells. It is this latter approach which will be discussed.

Currently there are two major research approaches to the problem of attempting to find agents which might be of value in control of cancer (1) empirical screening of large numbers of materials against various animal and human neoplasms (2) searches for exploitable biochemical differences between normal and neoplastic cells with the ultimate objective of designing and synthesizing metabolite antagonists with greater selective toxicity to cancer cells. There is much emotional, shortsighted and unproductive debate on the relative merits of these two approaches. Both efforts are obviously complementary. I am tempted to take this dogmatic statement as my text for this discussion.

You have already heard Dr. Buchanan ably discuss his group's fundamental work with regard to the effect of azaserine on *de novo* purine synthesis. It is of interest to note that this inhibitor which has been a useful tool in adding to our knowledge of the chemical events leading to purine nucleotides (4) was picked out of a crude beer and synthesized because of its inhibitory action toward sarcoma 180 (9). We postulated that azaserine might be an inhibitor of *de novo* purine biosynthesis because of its potentiation of the antitumor activity of 6-mercaptopurine (3) and the potentiating activity of this combination against L 1210 leukemia (Table I).



inhibition of *E. coli*. Wheeler and Brockman (unpublished data) have observed that pyridoxal phosphate will prevent azaserine inhibition of *E. coli*. There is growing evidence that the  $B_6$  coenzyme is involved in the conversion of formylglycinamide ribotide to formylglycinamide ribotide perhaps by activation of one of the reactants leading to the latter compound.

Now let me quickly review the evidence for the site of blockade of azaserine within the chemical events leading to purine nucleotides by means of a metabolic map (Fig. 1). Much of the fundamental work indicated on this chart came from the results of Buchanan and his associates. This map includes data obtained in a pigeon liver enzyme system in *E. coli* and in the intact animal.

We have observed that 6-mercaptapurine inhibits labeled formate glycine and hypoxanthine but not adenine incorporation into the polynucleotide purines of the intact animal (6). Thus it now seems reasonable to assume that the potentiated anticancer activity observed in animals resulting from therapy with azaserine plus 6-mercaptapurine or amethopterin plus 6-mercaptapurine may be the result of a sequential blockade. Such a hypothesis is of conceivable value in the search for effective combination chemotherapy. Certainly the fundamental information on the intermediates en route to nucleotide synthesis and knowledge of the nitrogen donors provides new targets for potential antimetabolite synthesis. Thus fundamental biochemistry has helped to provide some possibly useful information for the chemotherapist and I believe all would agree that the work of Stock *et al.* (9) leading to the discovery of azaserine has materially aided fundamental biochemistry.

Having tried to make this point I should like to spend a few minutes talking about some preliminary studies which we are carrying out in collaboration with Dr. C. P. Rhoads and his associates in an attempt to gain information on exploitable biochemical differences between normal and neoplastic tissues. Such knowledge is badly needed in any rational effort to synthesize more effective anticancer agents.

These studies entail the injection of selected labeled compounds into animals bearing either animal or human tumors and comparing their relative incorporation into the DNA or RNA of the tumors versus various host normal tissues. I do not have the time or the inclination to review all the results obtained to date (1, 2) but I should like to refer to one rather profound difference which we have observed and some studies which suggest a possible explanation for this apparent difference between cancer and normal tissues. In some twenty different types of animal tumors and two different human tumors studied to date it has been

Just previous to the observation of the azaserine 6 MP potentiation we had observed the potentiating antileukemic activity of amethopterin (an inhibitor of *de novo* purine synthesis) and 6 MP (8). Tracer experiments in the intact animal quickly showed that azaserine treatment inhibited incorporation of formate and glycine into nucleic acid purines but failed to inhibit adenine incorporation (7). Hartman *et al* (4) then found the exact site of azaserine blockade in their pigeon liver enzyme system capable of *de novo* synthesis of inosinic acid. Tomisek Kelly

TABLE I  
EFFECTS OF AZASERINE PLUS 6 MERCAPTOPYRINE ON LIFE SPAN OF MICE WITH  
L 1210 LEUKEMIA

Treatment	Average life span	
	Days	Per cent above control
None	66	
X†	105	59
Y†	106	61
X + Y	204	209
X/2 + Y/2	214	224
X/4 + Y/4	151	128

\* This combination was first shown to be potentiating by Clarke *et al* (3)

† X = azaserine 80 mg/kg  $\times$  10

† Y = 6-mercaptopurine 40 mg/kg  $\times$  10

and Skipper (unpublished data) have confirmed this site of blockade in isolated intact cells (*E coli*) capable of *de novo* synthesis of purine nucleotides and purine containing coenzymes. Bennett, Schabel and Skipper (unpublished data) have shown that azaserine inhibits *de novo* purine synthesis *in vivo* without affecting nucleic acid thymine synthesis and by use of labeled precursors which enter the pathway to purine nucleotides at different sites have delimited the site of blockade to the area between the points of entry of glycine and 5 amino 4 imidazole carboxamide. This observation is of course in agreement with the results obtained with isolated systems (4). Tomisek *et al* (unpublished data). We have also observed that azaserine inhibits *de novo* nucleic acid purine synthesis in human tumors growing in cortisonized hamsters (Bennett *et al* unpublished data). Then if more confirmation is needed regarding the site of purine blockade by azaserine, Schabel has noted that glutamic acid, glutamine, 5 amino 4 imidazolecarboxamide, hypoxanthine, adenine, guanine or xanthine will partially prevent azaserine

periments) (2) a deficiency within the tumor cells of catalysts responsible for conversion of guanine to guanosine or guanylic acid (this appears unlikely in view of the finding that sarcoma 180 incorporates guanylic acid  $8\text{-C}^{14}$  poorly when compared to normal mouse tissues) and (3) the possibility that tumors contain relatively high levels of guanase and therefore rapidly degrade guanine before it can be incorporated into tumor nucleic acids. It is data on this last possibility that I should like to present at this time.

It has been shown that AIC inhibits deamination of 8-azaguanine *in vitro* (5) and a possibly similar enzyme is inhibited by AIC *in vivo* (5). Therefore it seemed of importance to determine the effects of AIC on guanine incorporation into tumor polynucleotides under the conditions of previous experiments. The results of experiments designed to shed light on the effects of AIC (guanase inhibition?) have been carried out by Bennett and associates (unpublished data). The results of these efforts are summarized in Table II.

These results seem quite suggestive that sarcoma 180 (and by inference other neoplastic cells) is indeed high in guanine deaminase activity. We should like to know whether this possible high guanase level is associated with uncontrolled growth in neoplasia and even more we should like to know how this difference might be exploited to the disadvantage of disseminated cancer cells. Perhaps one might find an innocuous purine derivative which guanase would convert to a cytotoxic agent and thus exploit the possibly higher guanase activity of tumors *in vivo*. Or it might be possible to block guanine synthesis in both neoplastic and normal cells and reverse this block preferentially in normal tissues with guanine or guanylic acid. Obviously the kind of biochemical differences we have seen to date are not what we are searching for. Theoretically for a rational approach to the selective poisoning of disseminated neoplastic cells one needs knowledge of an obligate biochemical pathway for neoplastic cells which is unimportant to normal mammalian cells such as is apparently the case with pathogenic bacteria which are selectively poisoned *in vivo* by sulfonamides.

I should now like to talk briefly about screening results recently obtained on a new class of purine analogs the pyrazolo(3,4-d)pyrimidines. Working with Dr Roland Robins we have now screened some sixty pyrazolo(3,4-d)pyrimidines and I believe have obtained some interesting structure activity relationships. It is of no little comfort to us that the same compounds out of this rather large series have "fallen out" in two different experimental screening procedures (1) inhibition of growth of adenocarcinoma 755 in C57 black mice and (2) subcutaneous

consistently observed that tumors fail to incorporate guanine into their polynucleotides as well as do normal tissues. This difference is no small one but is of the order of five to one hundred fold.

When biochemical situations which might account for this difference were considered the following seemed plausible: (1) differential cell permeability (this now appears unlikely as the result of preliminary ex-

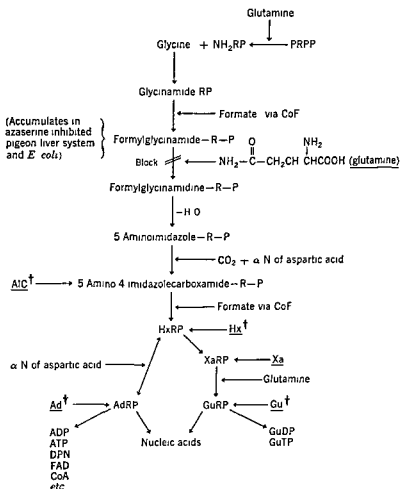


FIG. 1 Underlined compounds have been shown to prevent the inhibition of *E. coli* by azaserine. An asterisk indicates labeled compounds whose incorporation into nucleotide and polynucleotide purines is inhibited by azaserine. A dagger indicates labeled compounds whose incorporation into nucleotide and polynucleotide purines is not inhibited by azaserine. Abbreviations: P phosphate, R ribose, AIC 5-amino-4-imidazolecarboxamide, Hx hypoxanthine, Ad adenine, Xa xanthine, Gu guanine.

growth or life span experiments with leukemia 5178 in DBA mice. The results obtained to date which indicate a relationship between structure and anticancer activity are summarized in Table III.

From the theoretical standpoint it is interesting to note that two active 4 aminopyrazolo(3,4-d)pyrimidines are blocked in the 1 position with a methyl group and therefore have no obvious point for attachment of ribose phosphate *in vivo*.

TABLE III

PIRAZOLO(3,4-d)PYRIMIDINES WHICH HAVE SHOWN ANTICANCER ACTIVITY TO DATE



Substituent on pyrazolo- (3,4-d)pyrimidine	Activity against	
	Adenocarcinoma "33"	Leukemia 5178
4 Amino	+	+
4 Methylamino	+	+
4 Dimethylamino	+	+
4 Ethylamino		?
4 Isopropylamino	+	+
4 n Butylamino	?	?
4 Furfurylamino	+	
1 Methyl-4 amino	+	+
1 Methyl-4 methylamino	+	+

Note: + = confirmed statistically significant activity; ? = suggestive activity as yet unconfirmed; blank = not yet run.

It will be of some interest to learn more about the mechanisms of action of these compounds which contain a ring structure isomeric with the purine ring and to determine if they possess antileukemic activity in man.

One more subject. It has long been of concern to all of us just what the stumbling blocks to chemotherapeutic "cure" of leukemia are. It is generally suspected that the existence of drug resistant mutants in untreated populations of leukemic cells which eventually overgrow in spite of therapy is one factor and of course the failure yet to uncover an agent or a combination of agents with sufficient selective toxicity to neoplastic cells must be another.

TABLE II

**EFFECTS OF AIC ON UTILIZATION OF GUANINE BY SARCOMA 180 AND NORMAL TISSUES OF THE MOUSE**

((Groups of 10 animals were employed and tissues were pooled for polynucleotide, purine isolation. AIC • HCl was administered at 200 mg/kg 1 hour before and again immediately before injection of labeled guanine. All animals were sacrificed 6 hours after injection of labeled guanine.))

Specific activities (counts/sec $\gamma$ pulse)											
Sarcoma 180				Intestine				Liver			
DNA		RNA		DNA		RNA		DNA		RNA	
Ad	Gu	Ad	Gu	Ad	Gu	Ad	Gu	Ad	Gu	Ad	Gu
Control	<0.02	<0.03	<0.02	<0.02	0.16	<0.02	0.36	<0.05	0.21	<0.04	0.42
Treated	<0.03	0.17	<0.03	<0.02	0.45	<0.02	0.64	<0.06	0.39	<0.05	0.57
Control	<0.04	<0.03	<0.01	<0.04	0.18	<0.02	0.37	<0.05	<0.1	<0.1	0.20
Treated	<0.04	0.33	<0.02	<0.02	0.45	<0.02	0.76	<0.05	0.24	<0.05	0.46



TABLE IV (Continued)  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBERS OF LEUKEMIC CELLS (L-4946) INOCULATED AND  
"CURABILITY" WITH AMETHOPTERIN

Time of initiation of therapy relative to leukemic inocu- lation (indicated as 0) hours	Average life span days	Range of life span, days	Number of leukemic deaths	Per cent 88-day cures"
Number of leukemic cells inoculated			1,000	
Controls	31	19-31	10/10	
0-3			1/10	90
0			0/10	100
3			0/10	100
6			1/10	90
-4			0/10	100
Treated totals			2/50	96
Number of leukemic cells inoculated			1,0	
Controls	31.3	21-37	10/10	
0-3			0/10	100
0			0/10	100
3			0/9	100
6			0/10	100
-4			0/9	100
Treated totals			0/48	100
Number of leukemic cells inoculated			12 (ca)	
Controls			7/10	-
0-3			0/10	100
0			0/10	100
3			0/9	100
6			0/10	100
24			0/10	100
Treated totals			0/49	100

jected intraperitoneally and treatment was by the same route but it should be pointed out that this is not an ascitic form of L-4946 and that the evidence available suggests that such leukemic cells when injected intraperitoneally quickly find their way into the blood stream. The data presented in Table IV appear of some interest. Further work is in progress in an attempt to shed light on the meaning of such results.

It might be of interest from the clinical standpoint to attempt therapy with a drug such as 6-MP (to achieve as complete a remission of acute

We have recently completed a study on the "curability" of leukemia L 4946 in highly inbred AK mice under conditions most dissimilar from the spontaneous clinical disease but still of interest to us. This experiment shows quite clearly the relationship between numbers of leukemic cells inoculated and the curability under the favorable conditions employed. The details of this experiment and results obtained are presented in Table IV. The leukemic cells employed in this study were in

TABLE IV  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBERS OF LEUKEMIC CELLS (L-4946) INOCULATED AND "CURABILITY" WITH AMETHOPTERIN

(The entry 0-3 indicates that the first injection of amethopterin preceded leukemic inoculation by 3 hours. In all cases therapy was continued (after the initial treatment) every other day for a total of ten doses. Amethopterin was administered uniformly at levels of 3 mg/kg intraperitoneally.)

Time of initiation of therapy relative to leukemic inocu- lation (indicated as 0) hours	Average life span days	Range of life span days	Number of leukemic deaths	Per cent 58 day cures
Number of leukemic cells inoculated 1,000,000				
Controls	13.4	12-19	10/10	-
0-3	35.3	30-57	10/10	0
0	34.0	21-43	10/10	0
3	34.1	27-53	10/10	0
6	30.8	27-35	10/10	0
24	33.2	29-42	9/9	0
Treated totals			49/49	0
Number of leukemic cells inoculated 120,000				
Controls	16.4	14-21	10/10	-
0-3	39.6	31-59	10/10	0
0			8/10	20
3			9/10	10
6			9/10	10
24			9/9	0
Treated totals			45/49	8
Number of leukemic cells inoculated 12,000				
Controls	20.3	18-29	10/10	-
0-3			5/10	50
0			0/10	100
3			1/10	90
6			0/10	100
24			2/10	80
Treated totals			8/50	84

The most potent agents which can reverse the inhibition by azaserine are phenylalanine, tryptophan and tyrosine. This has been demonstrated by Stock and Kaplan from Sloan Kettering on studies of inhibition of growth. They imposed a hypothesis that azaserine may be involved in the inhibition of the synthesis of these aromatic amino acids. This is not necessarily so because other substances which are rich in  $\beta$  and  $\epsilon$  aromatic substances also can prevent azaserine inhibition. For example  $\beta$ -2-thienylalanine which is an analog of phenylalanine is potent in reversing the inhibition of azaserine with respect to the synthesis of the imidazoles.

We have no adequate explanation for the effects of the aromatic amino acids but as a working hypothesis it is possible that azaserine itself is not the true inhibitor but must be metabolized to an inhibitor and these reversing agents may prevent this activation. This may also be true in the case of glutamine.

I emphasize this only to stress that the ability of a substance to reverse an inhibition does not impose a competitive metabolic function.

Furthermore we feel that azaserine although it can be shown to inhibit purine synthesis must have other functions as far as inhibition of growth is concerned because purines alone cannot reverse inhibition of growth in the organisms that we use. Glutamine cannot reverse inhibition of growth either. The only substances we have found that can do this are the aromatic amino acids phenylalanine, tryptophan and tyrosine.

DR. ROBERT CUTHRIE (Buffalo, New York). I should like to extend the remarks of the last speaker and comment particularly on the papers by Drs. Brown and Hitchings to illustrate two main points deserving of emphasis at this symposium.

First it has been mentioned in a number of papers here that an antimetabolite can act as a metabolite depending on the particular cell system or depending on the conditions under which it is tested. In reverse it is possible for a metabolite to act as an antimetabolite. This has been demonstrated a number of times but it is possible that this particular point has not received the attention it deserves from those interested in chemotherapy. Studies of nutrition of animals as well as of bacteria have revealed cases of amino acid imbalances. Internal inhibition—the inhibitory effects of accumulated intermediates on other pathways in the same cell—has been described by Dr. B. D. Davis and others. Another example is the case of the sulfonamide requiring mutant in *Neurospora*. The sulfonamide requirement apparently is an expression of the fact that this particular mutant is sensitive not to an unphysiological concentration of p-aminobenzoic acid but to the normal concentration of this vitamin that it itself synthesizes.

This point is best illustrated by toxopyrimidine listed under this name in the Merck Index. The compound is actually a form of the natural thymine pyrimidine 2-methyl-4-amino-5-methylpyrimidine. It was found by Makino *et al.* to be extremely toxic to mice and further that the toxicity of this natural pyrimidine was prevented by pyridoxine. More recently Harris has found this same antagonism with the role of each antagonist reversed. Pyridoxine can interfere with the utilization of the thymine pyrimidine in synthesis of thiamine in *Neurospora*. Here then is a striking example of the point I am stressing in that two metabolites can interfere with each other's action and either one can act as an antimetabolite depending on the biological system.

The facts indicate that we might be able to exploit a potential biochemical difference between two cell types to obtain selective toxicity by the proper use of the

leukemia as possible and to get the blast count low) and then to follow immediately with a course of treatment with amethopterin

In closing I should like to reiterate that I believe results obtained in the present screening programs and fundamental biochemical programs are complementary. I hope the day will come when knowledge of the biochemistry of cancer, the mechanisms of action of antimetabolites and other classes of tumor inhibiting agents, and the mechanisms of resistance will prove useful in the search for more effective means for controlling leukemias and other types of cancer.

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## General Discussion

DR. JOSEPH S. GOTS (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania): I should like to recount some of our experiences with azaserindipity."

We are also using microbial systems (*E. coli* and *Salmonellae*). We measure the synthesis of the imidazole precursors by using biochemical mutants in systems which do not allow their proliferation. We measure the synthetic ability of nonproliferating suspensions of intact cells.

Azaserine has a very potent inhibitory action on this synthesis. As little as 0.1  $\gamma$ /ml will cut down the synthesis by 50% and 1  $\gamma$ /ml will completely inhibit.

Glutamine does have some effect in reversing this inhibition by azaserine, but it is rather weak and it cannot be divorced from the effect that glutamine itself has in stimulating the synthetic activity in the absence of azaserine. No evidence of competition could be demonstrated.

latory activity than the parent pyrimidine analog and hence azathymine does not exert its inhibitory effect by trapping deoxyribose in this manner preventing the biosynthesis of DNA.

An interesting relationship was observed between the biological effect of azathymine on the growth of *S. faecalis* and its incorporation into the DNA of this microorganism. When azathymine-5-C<sup>14</sup> was added prior to inoculation in a concentration which produced 50% inhibition of growth the incorporation of the radioactive analog into the DNA was of the order of a 15 to 16% replacement of the normal thymine content. However when sufficient azathymine-5-C<sup>14</sup> was added during the logarithmic phase of growth to obtain the same degree of inhibition we found very little incorporation—from zero to less than 1% replacement of thymine. Under the conditions where essentially no incorporation of 5-azathymine into the DNA was observed death of all the microorganisms occurred within 48 hours whereas under the conditions of a 16% replacement of DNA thymine no death of the bacterial cells was observed.

Hence the mechanism of inhibition of this pyrimidine analog does not appear to be via incorporation into the DNA but more probably by inhibition of the utilization of a required metabolic intermediate or of the function of an essential coenzyme.

DR. C. B. BROWN (New York, New York): I might comment briefly in regard to what Dr. Guthrie was saying.

It is well known that there are a number of examples where adenine, which is a normal metabolite, can be inhibitory at high levels; in fact, Dr. Guthrie had some microorganisms which were inhibited by adenine and in which diaminopurine would reverse the inhibition.

I might also add that the purine riboside of which I spoke is a naturally occurring compound. It has been isolated so far only from mushrooms but nevertheless we might look for it elsewhere in nature. Perhaps its toxicity is an instance of a case of a normal metabolite being present in at normal concentrations thereby leading to toxicity.

I think that normal compounds at abnormal levels is another very, very important possibility for interference with biological systems.

DR. C. H. HITCHINGS (Tuckahoe, New York): I should like to add a few words on the question of unbalanced growth raised by Dr. Guthrie and go back to some of the experiments which Dr. Gordon reported yesterday. You will recall that with one of the pyrimidines of the Daraprim family he got inhibition of bone marrow cellular elements. When he tried to protect the bone marrow from the action of this inhibitor by adding a stimulant he got instead increased inhibition.

These pyrimidines are primarily inhibitors of cell division which work by preventing the synthesis of the precursors of the nucleic acid necessary for cell division. When you stimulate cells by other means what you do essentially is to bring more cells at the rate of cell division and so you enhance the activity of the inhibitor.

A clear phenomenon has been seen very clearly in the case of Daraprim in which the time of action of the compound has little to do with the method of administration of the compound or the dosage. It depends chiefly on the stage in the life cycle of the parasite. The rings grow normally in the presence of the compound and then it comes time for schizogony and then they disintegrate.

natural metabolites themselves. This is related to another idea that is currently gaining some attention that is the use of a metabolite and an antimetabolite in combination in which one attempts to increase the selective toxicity between two cell types by protecting one type at the expense of the other. I think these ideas may be of particular importance in cancer chemotherapy where the biochemical basis for selective toxicity may be quite subtle and specific.

The other point I want to mention is related to Dr. Got's comment. Although nucleic acid metabolism has received well deserved emphasis as a target of cancer chemotherapy at this conference I am sure many of us would admit the possibility that the anticancer effects of such agents as the antifolates 6-mercaptopurine and azaserine could result from effects on other metabolic pathways involving purines and pyrimidines at catalytic levels far removed from nucleic acid per se.

DR. A. GOLDIN (Bethesda, Maryland). I was particularly interested in Dr. Skipper's last table because we have a similar result with leukemia L210 in which we have shown a linear relationship between the dose of methopterin employed and the total number of cells in the leukemic inoculum [*Science* 123: 840 (1956)]. I think that is pretty good confirmation of what Dr. Skipper showed.

I should like to bring out one other point. One of the things we have been interested in is the question of protecting against the toxicity of some of these anti-metabolites. For example, we have been able to protect against the toxicity of 6-mercaptopurine with compounds such as adenylic acid, guanylic acid and inosinic acid.

We put together a combination of sodium formate, 4-amino-5-imidazole carboxamide, ribose 5-phosphate and citrovorum factor and found that with this we could protect against the toxicity of 6-mercaptopurine. We thought this was rather nice, especially in view of the work of Buchanan and Greenberg.

When we investigated the individual components, however, we found that although with the same dose, for example, of ribose 5-phosphate alone we could not get any protection, nevertheless if we boosted the dose of ribose 5-phosphate sufficiently, without the addition of the other compounds we were able to get protection against 6-mercaptopurine.

I was wondering whether this suggests a mobilization of other components in a system *in vivo* in response to introduction of one particular metabolite. I wonder whether Dr. Skipper or Dr. Buchanan might have some comment on that.

DR. J. M. BUCHANAN (Cambridge, Massachusetts). I don't know whether I exactly understand the question. There is one interesting comment that I would make, however. There is an enzyme that reacts with 6-mercaptopurine and 5-phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate to form the 6-mercaptopurine ribotide. This compound was isolated over a year ago in our laboratory.

If this is the type of mobilization of which you are speaking, then I would agree. In other words, by introducing the 6-mercaptopurine compound you would get a mobilization of the enzymes which convert it into the ribotide, the form in which it is possibly reactive as a chemotherapeutic agent.

DR. W. IRUSOFF (New Haven, Connecticut). We have studied the mechanism of action of 6-azathymine, the compound discussed by Dr. Hitchings, and have found that *Streptococcus faecalis* can convert this compound to the corresponding deoxy-riboside. We find that this nucleoside, azathymidine, is much more potent in

Purine Nucleotide Biosynthesis and Neoplasia<sup>1</sup>DAVID A. GOLDTHWAIT<sup>2</sup>

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio

The antimetabolites which are most effective in the chemotherapy of leukemia appear to exert their effect on the synthesis of nucleic acids. The most notable of these are 6-mercaptopurine, azaserine, and the folic acid antagonists; other less prominent agents are 2,6-diaminopurine, chloropurine, thioguanine, and azathymine (6). The partial effectiveness of these drugs in the acute leukemia of childhood has made it even more imperative to elucidate the pathways of synthesis of nucleic acids and the factors controlling the rates of the reactions. I wish to discuss some of the earlier steps in the biosynthesis of purine nucleotides on which we have worked, and I shall discuss these with particular reference to the possible control of the rates of these reactions by mechanisms within the normal and neoplastic cell, and also with reference to the action of some antimetabolites.

It was possible to carry out this work for two reasons: first because Dr. Buchanan and his group had defined the ultimate carbon and nitrogen sources of the atoms of the purine ring (4) and second because Dr. Robert Greenberg had developed a soluble enzyme system which would synthesize *de novo* purine nucleotides (13). Much of this work was done in collaboration with Dr. Robert Greenberg and Dr. Richard Peabody, to whom the author is very grateful.

From an acetone powder extract of pigeon liver two aliphatic ribotides were isolated (11, 12) which were precursors of inosinic acid. The structures of these compounds, glycinnucleotide (GAR) and formyl-

<sup>1</sup> This work was supported by grants from Eli Lilly and Co., the American Heart Association, and the U. S. Public Health Service.

<sup>2</sup> Established Investigator of the American Heart Association.

DR ROBERT GUTHRIE (Buffalo New York) At two different laboratories in two different institutions I have been told that natural purine bases have been found to stimulate the growth of a particular solid tumor (S180) In one case the purine was tested as a control for an experiment in which the purine was combined with amethopterin in the hope of getting a synergistic effect and such a synergistic effect was obtained Amethopterin was more inhibitory to the tumor in combination with the purine These findings would appear to support another basis for combining a metabolite with an antimetabolite If one can make one cell type grow faster than the other and thus push its metabolic machinery faster one can make it more sensitive to the monkey wrench thrown in Further support for this idea could be drawn from consideration of the temperature sensitive mutants of molds and bacteria When the cells are growing faster at higher temperatures a vitamin requirement is exhibited that is not shown at lower temperatures In this case an anti-metabolite that interferes with this vitamin might be expected to be more active when growth is faster



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The antimetabolites which are most effective in the chemotherapy of leukemia appear to exert their effect on the synthesis of nucleic acids. The most notable of these are 6-mercaptopurine, azaserine, and the folic acid antagonists; other less prominent agents are 2,6-diaminopurine, chloropurine, thioguanine, and azathymine (6). The partial effectiveness of these drugs in the acute leukemia of childhood has made it even more imperative to elucidate the pathways of synthesis of nucleic acids and the factors controlling the rates of the reactions. I wish to discuss some of the earlier steps in the biosynthesis of purine nucleotides on which we have worked, and I shall discuss these with particular reference to the possible control of the rates of these reactions by mechanisms within the normal and neoplastic cell, and also with reference to the action of some antimetabolites.

It was possible to carry out this work for two reasons: first because Dr. Buchanan and his group had defined the ultimate carbon and nitrogen sources of the atoms of the purine ring (4), and second because Dr. Robert Greenberg had developed a soluble enzyme system which would synthesize *de novo* purine nucleotides (13). Much of this work was done in collaboration with Dr. Robert Greenberg and Dr. Richard Peabody, to whom the author is very grateful.

From an acetone powder extract of pigeon liver two aliphatic ribotides were isolated (11, 12) which were precursors of inosinic acid. The structures of these compounds, glycnamide ribotide (GAR) and formyl

<sup>1</sup> This work was supported by grants from Eli Lilly and Co., the American Heart Association, and the U. S. Public Health Service.

<sup>2</sup> Fellow Investigator of the American Heart Association.

glycinamide ribotide (FGAR) and their relation to inosinic acid (IMP) are shown in Fig. 1<sup>3</sup>

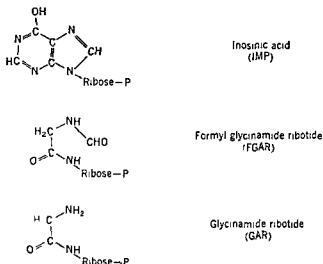


FIG. 1

In an analysis of the mechanism of synthesis of glycinamide ribotide the first question which must be raised is: What are the substrates required for synthesis? Table I shows that ribose 5 phosphate (R5P), glutamine, ATP, and glycine react in some manner to form the compound

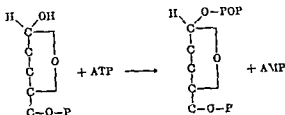
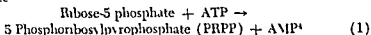
TABLE I  
SUBSTRATE REQUIREMENTS FOR GLYCINAMIDE RIBOTIDE SYNTHESIS

Substrate	Glycine 1 C <sup>14</sup> in glycinamide ribotide $\mu$ M
R5P + glutamine + ATP	0.15
R5P + glutamine	0.02
R5P + ATP	0.02
Glutamine + ATP	0.01

The next question is: How do these substances react? At the present time we can write three equations and we shall consider these in 3 steps

<sup>3</sup> Abbreviations used in this discussion: ATP, adenosine triphosphate; AMP, adenosine monophosphate; R5P, ribose 5 phosphate; PRPP, 5-phosphoribosylpyrophosphate; PRA, 5-phosphoribosylamine; P<sub>i</sub>, inorganic phosphate; P<sub>o</sub>i, inorganic pyrophosphate; GAR, glycinamide ribotide; FGAR, formylglycinamide ribotide; THFA, tetrahydrofolic acid; CF, citrovorum factor; DPN, diphenylpyridine nucleotide.

wise fashion. The first reaction is the formation of a derivative of ribose 5-phosphate



This reaction is known to be essential because PRPP was shown to substitute for ribose 5 phosphate and an enzyme fraction capable of synthesizing PRPP from ribose 5 phosphate and ATP (10, 16). PRPP (19) is a key compound in the synthesis of purine nucleotides. It is required in both the *de novo* synthesis and the synthesis of nucleotides from the free bases adenine, guanine and hypoxanthine (20). It is reasonable to suspect that an analog of this compound should be able to block purine nucleotide synthesis regardless of the pathway operating within the cell and therefore should accomplish what at present is one of the theoretical aims of combined therapy. Practically the design of such an analog may be difficult because of the problem of cellular permeability to the phosphate esters.

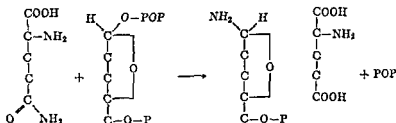
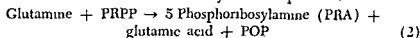
The mechanism of the control of the rate of the reaction by which PRPP is synthesized is obscure. Obviously it depends on the amounts of ATP, of the enzyme, and of ribose 5 phosphate. The level of ATP within the cell is important. Not only is the total cellular ATP content important but also the location of the ATP in relation to the enzyme involved in PRPP synthesis.

Preliminary studies show that at least some of the PRPP synthesizing enzyme resides in the supernatant fraction of a homogenate ( $78,000 \times g$  for 1 hour) of the pigeon liver. It is in this fraction also that the glycolytic enzymes are found which can generate ATP. Ribose 5 phosphate may arise by two pathways. One is by oxidation of glucose 6 phosphate and 6 phosphogluconic acid to ribose 5 phosphate. The alternate pathway is via the transketolase transaldolase series of reactions (17) the enzymes for which are also found in the supernatant fraction. Isotopic studies of ribose synthesis in the chick by Bernstein (2) suggest that the latter pathway may be the main mechanism of conversion of glucose to

<sup>4</sup> The hydrogens and hydroxyls are omitted for the sake of simplicity.

ribose 5 phosphate in the animal. It is then clear that the rate of PRPP synthesis depends on the rate of conversion of glucose to ribose 5 phosphate and on the ATP level in the soluble portion of the cytoplasm. Is there any difference in this pathway in the normal and in the malignant cell? It is tempting to try to relate this to the observations of Otto Warburg regarding the increased fermentation or glycolytic metabolism and decreased respiratory metabolism in cancer cells as compared to normal cells (29). We may ask: Does the increased glycolysis in tumor cells result in an increased conversion of glucose to ribose 5 phosphate which then results in an increase of PRPP synthesis? Is this the primary driving force in nucleotide synthesis? Since nucleotide intermediates do not normally accumulate nor are the levels of purine or pyrimidine nucleotides ever exceptionally high, one wonders whether there is some controlling mechanism in the first steps. If so, does the relationship to glycolysis in some way include a mechanism of control? Needless to say, we do not have any chemotherapeutic control of ribose 5 phosphate or PRPP synthesis.

The second reaction in the *de novo* synthesis is postulated as follows:



The product of the reaction between PRPP and glutamine is extremely unstable and has not yet been isolated. What then is the evidence for 5-phosphoribosylamine (PRA)? Balance studies of the reaction showed that glutamic acid pyrophosphate and ribose 5 phosphate were products. It seemed logical that PRA was the initial product which was readily degraded to ribose 5 phosphate. PRA was therefore synthesized chemically. The material was very unstable at pH 7.0 but would substitute for PRPP and glutamine in the synthesis of glycnamide ribotide (10) (Table II).

Control of the rate of the PRPP-glutamine reaction, the equilibrium of which lies far toward the product, depends on the levels of the substrates PRPP and glutamine. Some of the factors involved in PRPP synthesis have been discussed. The reactions which maintain the glutamine level

within the cell are multiple and cannot be considered here in detail. In mammalian cells a transport mechanism exists for the concentration of glutamine (25). The glutamine levels also depend on the rate of synthesis from glutamic acid, ammonia, and ATP (24), which is rapid, judging from  $N^{15}$  isotopic data (23). One reason for this rapid rate of turnover of  $N^1$  may be purine nucleotide synthesis for which only the amide nitrogen of glutamine is utilized. For example in the PRPP-glutamine reaction, glutamic acid is regenerated and becomes available again for the synthesis of glutamine. Thus any compound which is an antagonist of

TABLE II  
SUBSTITUTION OF PRA FOR PRPP AND GLUTAMINE IN  
GLYCINAMIDE RIBOTIDE SYNTHESIS

	Glycinamide ribotide formed $\mu$ M	
	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
PRPP + glutamine + ATP	0.32	0.13
PRA + ATP	1.10	0.48
PRA	—	0.01

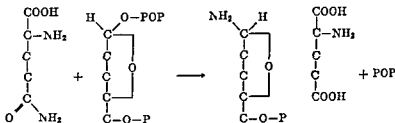
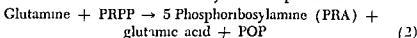
glutamic acid in the synthesis of glutamine, such as methionine sulfoxide (28), might be effective in decreasing the intracellular levels of glutamine. The effect of such an antagonist would be circumvented by exogenous glutamine, however.<sup>5</sup> Therefore the effective level of glutamine can be more easily reduced by a glutamine antagonist. Azaserine (26) appears to be such a compound and has been shown by Hartman *et al.* to block purine biosynthesis at a step which results in the accumulation of formylglycinamide ribotide (16). In this case azaserine was shown to be a competitive inhibitor of glutamine (5). We have shown that azaserine is also effective as a competitive inhibitor of glutamine in the reaction with PRPP (Table III). The reaction is measured by the liberation of inorganic phosphate from PRPP after incubation with the enzyme glutamine and inorganic pyrophosphatase. It is apparent that the inhibition of azaserine can be reversed by glutamine and there is roughly a 50% inhibition of the reaction when glutamine and azaserine are present in equimolar amounts. At present there are no data available for comparison of the azaserine inhibition of the PRPP-glutamine reaction with the formylglycinamide ribotide reaction.<sup>6</sup>

<sup>5</sup> Actually most cells in tissue culture are unable to synthesize adequate amounts of glutamine. Recently Eagle *et al.* (7a) have shown that mouse fibroblasts required glutamine and that HeLa cells grow optimally on glutamine, but this requirement can be replaced by twenty times the amount of glutamic acid.

<sup>6</sup> Dr. Buchanan in this volume presents evidence for a preferential effect on the formylglycinamide ribotide reaction.

ribose 5 phosphate in the animal. It is then clear that the rate of PRPP synthesis depends on the rate of conversion of glucose to ribose 5 phosphate and on the ATP level in the soluble portion of the cytoplasm. Is there any difference in this pathway in the normal and in the malignant cell? It is tempting to try to relate this to the observations of Otto Warburg regarding the increased fermentation or glycolytic metabolism and decreased respiratory metabolism in cancer cells as compared to normal cells (29). We may ask: Does the increased glycolysis in tumor cells result in an increased conversion of glucose to ribose 5 phosphate which then results in an increase of PRPP synthesis? Is this the primary driving force in nucleotide synthesis? Since nucleotide intermediates do not normally accumulate nor are the levels of purine or pyrimidine nucleotides ever exceptionally high, one wonders whether there is some controlling mechanism in the first steps. If so, does the relationship to glycolysis in some way include a mechanism of control? Needless to say, we do not have any chemotherapeutic control of ribose 5 phosphate or PRPP synthesis.

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without the acceptor system the product of the reaction is unstable and is broken down to ribose 5 phosphate. This ribose 5 phosphate in turn can be converted to an organic phosphate compound which does not contain pentose and may be related to the transketolase reactions. When glycine and ATP are present during the reaction of PRPP and glutamine however the product of this reaction is converted quantitatively to glycynamide ribotide. In the acetone powder extract and in a sucrose

TABLE IV  
INSTABILITY OF THE PRODUCT OF THE PRPP GLUTAMINE REACTION

Preincubation	Incubation	PRPP at start of incubation $\mu\text{M}$	Glycinamide ribotide formed $\mu\text{M}$
PRPP and glutamine	Glycine and ATP	0	0
None	PRPP and glutamine + glycine and ATP	0.6	0.3

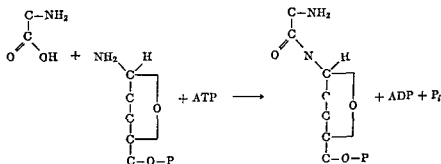
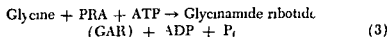
homogenate supernatant fraction the enzyme responsible for the PRPP glutamine reaction appears to be slower than the conversion of PRA to GAR. This may be more than fortuitous as an excess of PRA would result in degradation to R5P and consequent loss of two ATP molecules per molecule of PRA degraded. Preliminary experiments suggest that the breakdown of PRA may be enzymatic as well as nonenzymatic and thus introduces another possible regulatory mechanism. This degradation of PRA occurs when glycine levels are extremely low. Such low levels probably do not occur normally *in vivo* as this amino acid appears to be strongly concentrated by cells (7) and is also produced from serine (1). Isotopic experiments indicate that the major source of glycine in the animal is from serine (1). Experiments also suggest that pyruvate is converted to serine and glycine by an unknown mechanism (1). Again we see a possible link with the glycolytic system and this may have some relationship to the rate of serine and glycine synthesis in normal and neoplastic tissue. It is possible that extremely low levels of glycine may be produced in the animal by administration of a folic acid antagonist which will decrease the conversion of serine to glycine (9).

The final reaction sequence is the formylation of glycynamide ribotide (GAR) to yield formylglycinamide ribotide (FGAR). This requires first the formylation of a tetrahydrofolic acid derivative followed by the transfer of this formyl group to GAR.

TABLE III  
EFFECT OF AZASERINE ON THE PRPP GLUTAMINE REACTION

Experiment	Glutamine $\mu\text{M}$	Azaserine $\mu\text{M}$	PRPP utilized $\mu\text{M}$
1	5	0	0.29
	5	2.5	0.17
	5	5.0	0.11
	5	10	0.07
	5	20	0.06
2	5	0	0.14
	5	20	0.00
	10	20	0.01
	20	20	0.07

The second reaction between PRPP and glutamine results in a product PRA which then reacts with glycine and ATP to form glycinamide ribotide



In this reaction a peptide bond is formed. This requires energy which is derived from ATP. Actually the mechanism of synthesis of this bond appears to be similar to the mechanism of synthesis of glutamine from glutamic acid, ammonia, and ATP.

Control of the rate of this reaction again will depend on substrate levels. The level of the product of the PRPP-glutamine reaction (indicated as PRA) depends on the rate of production and the rate of destruction of this compound. The latter is an important consideration at least in *in vitro* experiments and may possibly provide an internal control mechanism for synthesis of purine nucleotides. If PRPP and glutamine are preincubated for 30 minutes until the reaction is complete and then glycine,  $1\text{ C}^{14}$ , and ATP are added and the incubation continued for 30 minutes, no glycinamide ribotide is formed (Table IV). In other words

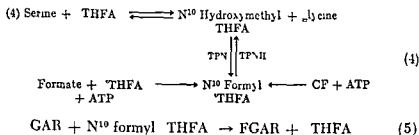


been isolated and it is possible that the formylation of GAR may be more sensitive

Finally it should be pointed out that the characterization of the aliphatic compound glycinamide ribotide is a point of departure for synthesis of a number of analogs possibly of the riboside series which might block the conversion of GAR to FGAR and would possess a high degree of specificity for this reaction

I wish to add a speculative note regarding the philosophy of tumor chemotherapy which I feel warrants further exploration. The present objective of chemotherapy is to kill malignant cells. By the bacterial analogy an antimetabolite to be most effective must block at least one metabolic pathway which is present only in the invading cell (30). No such unique pathway [with the possible exception of  $B_1$  synthesis in mammary tumors (30)] has yet been demonstrated in malignant cells and the effect of an antimetabolite on a single pathway therefore lies in some more vulnerable aspect of this pathway in the tumor cell as opposed to the normal cell. The reason for increased vulnerability may be due to a more favorable transport mechanism or concentrating mechanism of the antimetabolite, a decreased concentration of the metabolite within the cell, a less active degradation system affecting the antimetabolite, an altered  $K_m$  of the enzyme for the antimetabolite, or possibly a different cellular locus of the enzyme system which is affected by the antimetabolite. In every case the differential between the effect on normal cells and the effect on tumor cells is small. In most cases the effect also depends to a major degree on the activity required of the enzyme system; for example in rapidly growing tissue the normal rate of a reaction per unit of enzyme may be increased and the inhibition may be correspondingly greater. For these reasons an antimetabolite designed to inhibit a pathway common to all mammalian cells usually will not kill just neoplastic cells. Is it possible that some of these compounds act by altering the nature of the malignant cell?

The nature of the malignant cell must concern us in chemotherapy. Malignant cells arising from different tissues resemble one another in many biological, morphological and biochemical features. The similarity with embryonic tissue has long been obvious and many investigators have considered neoplasia in terms of the general problem of differentiation. In the process of differentiation some potentials of the cell are developed, certain functions are retained and others are lost. For each of these functions there are specific functional units which are involved in synthesis or maintenance of material. It seems reasonable that one difference between a normal and a malignant cell is a quantita-



The experimental work which has led to the scheme outlined under reaction 4 was done by Dr Robert Greenberg and Dr Lothar Jaenicke (15-18). Several facts are noteworthy. In this scheme one carbon units are introduced at the oxidation level of formaldehyde through serine and as formate. In the animal the main source of one carbon units is serine (1) and this as was mentioned previously can be synthesized from carbohydrate possibly through  $\beta$  OH pyruvate (8). Again the relationship of glycolysis to serine synthesis and the production of one carbon units is raised in connection with normal versus malignant cells.

Another point of interest is that the one carbon unit is located on the 10 nitrogen of tetrahydrofolic acid (THFA) rather than on the 5 nitrogen as in citrovorum factor (CF). CF can be converted however to  $\text{N}^{10}$  THFA by a reaction with ATP. The location of the formyl and hydroxymethyl groups on the  $\text{N}^{10}$  position of the folic acid derivative suggests that the  $\text{N}^{10}$  methyl derivatives such as amethopterin might inhibit some of the reactions depicted. Neither amethopterin nor chemically reduced amethopterin affects the incorporation of  $\text{C}^{14}$  formate into THFA. Experiments to demonstrate whether the conversion of the  $\beta$  carbon of serine to purines is affected have not been completed. Aminopterin does not affect any of the reactions depicted but appears to inhibit the conversion of folic acid to its reduced form (3). It is not clear whether this inhibition occurs in the initial reduction to dihydrofolic acid or in the final reduction with DPN (22) to tetrahydrofolic acid. The involvement of TPN in the interconversion of the hydroxymethyl to the formyl compound is of interest. Finally it should be noted that "THFA" and its derivatives are represented in quotation marks as these unstable compounds may be used in model systems but are known not to be the natural cofactors.

In the synthesis of the purine ring two formylation steps occur. The first is the formylation of GAR (reaction 5) and the second is the formylation of 5-amino-4-imidazole-carboxamide-ribotide. In *E. coli* the latter reaction appears to be more sensitive to block by folic acid antagonists (14). In animal systems however the carboxamide has never

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tive difference between the number of these different functional units rather than a qualitative difference in their synthesis or structure. These units are now defined in terms of subcellular structures such as nucleoli, mitochondria, microsomes, and enzymes. Further definition is obviously required. The principle of a quantitative difference of functional units between normal and malignant cells is clear, however. It is beautifully illustrated by the work of Striebig *et al.* (27) in which changes in the number of mitochondria per liver cell were induced by dimethylamino azobenzene (DAB) derivatives. With 2-methyl DAB the number of mitochondria per cell increased, whereas with 3-methyl DAB the number decreased. If the latter compound was administered for a long enough period, hepatomas developed. Thus, by the use of related compounds, entirely opposite effects were noted on one of the functional units of the cell. The same principle has recently been enunciated by Warburg in connection with the relationship of fermentation to respiration in normal and malignant cells (29) and it obviously pertains to the microsomal content as judged by electron microscopic studies of malignant tissue (21).

With the concept of the balance of subcellular units in mind, it might be well to define an alternative objective in chemotherapy to the killing of cells. This objective can be stated as the alteration of the metabolism of malignant cells in such a fashion that they no longer possess the outstanding property of malignant cells: uncontrolled division. This alteration in metabolism envisages a redistribution of the number of different units of the cell, a process which takes place in normal differentiation. In order to understand how to approach this objective, we must define more rigorously the nature of the subcellular units in normal and malignant cells, and then we must answer the question: What are the factors involved in the relative rates of synthesis of these units and in the maintenance of these units? Stated in another way: Why does a cell direct material principally into synthesis and maintenance of microsomes, for example, rather than mitochondria? Concerning the nucleic acids, the same question must be raised—What controls the diversion of nucleic acids into different functional units? In ribonucleic acid metabolism, there may be an initial common synthetic pathway for all units which then subdivides for specific units. It is at this subdivision that a chemotherapeutic agent might act to divert nucleic acid specifically into one pathway. Furthermore, we should ask: Do some of the agents now in use act in this manner? If we are searching for compounds which affect the process of differentiation, we may have to develop better indices to distinguish between the two possible effects of chemotherapy—the death of cells and the transformation of cells.

# 36

## Anticancer Agents and Nucleic Acid Metabolism of Isolated Human Leukocytes

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The preceding discussions can have left little doubt that processes of growth and cell division are intimately interwoven with biochemical reactions involving the synthesis and function of nucleic acids. It was the recognition of this relationship that led us some time ago to initiate our studies on the effects of potential chemotherapeutic agents on nucleic acid metabolism of isolated human leukocytes. Our approach to the problem has been to study the effects of metabolic antagonists on incorporation of labeled nucleic acid precursors into the whole cell fraction of normal and leukemic leukocytes and to determine the cell components into which these precursors are incorporated. We hoped to throw some biochemical light on the problem of resistance development perhaps to provide data bearing on selection of drugs for individual cases of leukemia and perhaps also to provide a means of screening potential chemotherapeutic agents with human material. We are yet a long way from any of these objectives but we do feel that we have made a measure of progress and it is of this progress that I should like to tell you. The project has been made possible through a close collaboration between the biochemists of our group Dr Williams Mr Wells Miss Burr and Miss Bornstein and members of the Department of Medicine especially Drs William Best John Schoolman Louis Limarzi and John Louis. I am acting as a spokesman for this group.

The method of isolating the leukocytes shown in Fig 1 is essentially that of Beck and Valentine (2) making use of fibrinogen to speed sedimentation of the erythrocytes. This procedure permits recovery of 60 to 80% of the leukocytes within 90 minutes after blood is drawn. The



ferred to tared planchets dried weighed and the radioactivity determined. From these data is calculated the micromoles of the precursor incorporated per milligram of protein.

In some experiments the trichloroacetic acid soluble nucleotides have been separated by ion exchange chromatography and their specific activity determined. In other experiments the RNA nucleotides and certain of the amino acids have been isolated from the "gross protein fraction" for specific activity determination.

Leukocytes have proved to be very satisfactory material for biochemical studies. They can be obtained in reasonable quantities with little damage to them. They have an active metabolism and they can be studied in their native environment in which they continue to be active for rather long periods of time. There are difficulties too. Single experiments with controls and replicates require some  $10^7$  cells, a fact which restricts work with normal or leukopenic blood. Normal cells have not proved to be a problem however because of the willingness of our medical students to bleed for the cause of science. However the homogeneity of the cell populations does not compare with that achieved with the transplanted leukemias or microorganisms about which we have been hearing.

In agreement with the comments during this Symposium by Drs. Rouser, Valentine and Waisman we conclude that leukocytes are at least as different metabolically and biochemically as they are morphologically. (3) Some data demonstrating this point are shown in Fig. 2. Here the *in vitro* incorporation of  $C^{14}$  formate into different types of leukocytes is expressed as micromoles incorporated per milligram of protein in a 4 hour incubation period and plotted as a function of the formate concentration. Two points of major interest are apparent. In all cases formate uptake rises to a maximum at concentrations above  $0.4 \mu M$  ml. the uptake being very small in comparison to the amount of formate added. The second point evident from these data is the large difference in the extent of formate uptake by leukocytes of different types. Although these curves are for individual experiments with three or four replicate incubations for each point it has been found that the differences noted here are reproducible and consistent.

Formate incorporation is two to three times as fast in Krebs Ringer bicarbonate glucose solution as it is in serum. The cells frequently clumped in this and in other media however. We have therefore preferred to maintain the cells in as physiological an environment as possible by suspending them in normal serum.

preparations are not completely free of erythrocytes and often there may be equal numbers of erythrocytes and leukocytes in the final preparations. This contamination has not been a serious problem as yet however since control experiments with erythrocytes alone have shown negligible isotope uptake with the precursors we have used.

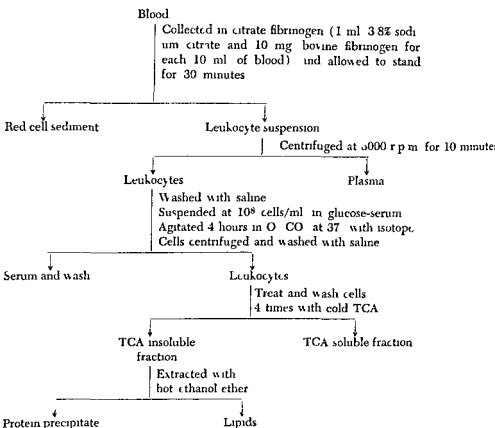


FIG. 1 Isolation and incubation of leukocytes

This figure also shows the procedure used in most of the incubations and in the subsequent fractionation procedures. One hundred million cells are incubated in 2.2 ml of normal serum containing  $2 \mu c$  of isotopic precursor in the presence and absence of the inhibitor under study. At the end of the incubation period the cells are harvested, washed, the proteins precipitated with trichloroacetic acid, and the lipids extracted to yield the "gross protein fraction" with which much of our work has been concerned. This protein is then dissolved in formic acid trans



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In some experiments the trichloroacetic acid soluble nucleotides have been separated by ion exchange chromatography and their specific activity determined. In other experiments the RNA nucleotides and certain of the amino acids have been isolated from the "gross protein fraction" for specific activity determination.

Leukocytes have proved to be very satisfactory material for biochemical studies. They can be obtained in reasonable quantities with little damage to them. They have an active metabolism and they can be studied in their native environment in which they continue to be active for rather long periods of time. There are difficulties too. Single experiments with controls and replicates require some 10 cells a fact which restricts work with normal or leukopenic blood. Normal cells have not proved to be a problem however because of the willingness of our medical students to bleed for the cause of science. However the homogeneity of the cell populations does not compare with that achieved with the transplanted leukemia or microorganisms about which we have been hearing.

In agreement with the comments during this Symposium by Drs. Rouser, Valentine and Waisman we conclude that leukocytes are at least as different metabolically and biochemically as they are morphologically (3). Some data demonstrating this point are shown in Fig. 2. Here the *in vitro* incorporation of  $C^{14}$  formate into different types of leukocytes is expressed as micromoles incorporated per milligram of protein in a 4 hour incubation period and plotted as a function of the formate concentration. Two points of major interest are apparent. In all cases formate uptake rises to a maximum at concentrations above  $0.4 \mu M$  ml. the uptake being very small in comparison to the amount of formate added. The second point evident from these data is the large difference in the extent of formate uptake by leukocytes of different types. Although these curves are for individual experiments with three or four replicate incubations for each point it has been found that the differences noted here are reproducible and consistent.

Formate incorporation is two to three times as fast in Krebs Ringer bicarbonate glucose solution as it is in serum. The cells frequently clumped in this and in other media however. We have therefore preferred to maintain the cells in as physiological an environment as possible by suspending them in normal serum.

Formate uptake is linear with time over at least a 6 hour period providing sufficient glucose is added. This is shown in Fig 3 for cells from a patient with chronic granulocytic leukemia. Also evident is the fact that formate incorporation into the gross protein fraction is markedly

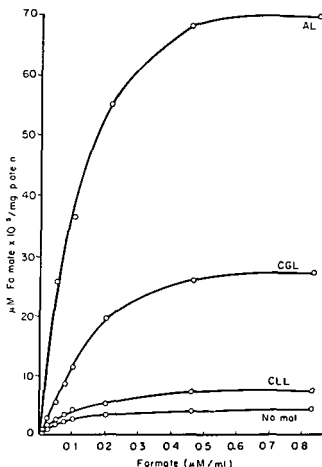


FIG 2 Formate incorporation into the "gross protein fraction" of leukocytes as a function of formate concentration. AL = acute leukemia cells CGL = chronic granulocytic leukemia cells CLL = chronic lymphocytic leukemia cells Normal = normal cells

inhibited by amethopterin. Since the amethopterin was added to the incubation vessels just before addition of radioformate it is evident that the effect of amethopterin is immediate and nonprogressive. This suggests that there is no great permeability barrier or extensive change of the antimetabolite required before it exerts its metabolic effect.

The amethopterin concentration in this experiment was very high 100  $\gamma$ /ml. Since the incorporation of formate was not completely inhibited by this high concentration it appears that there may be an amethopterin resistant formate incorporation into these leukocytes. Figure 4 presents further data bearing on this point. Here again are seen the differences in the rates of formate incorporation by the different types of leukocytes. The different types also show striking differences

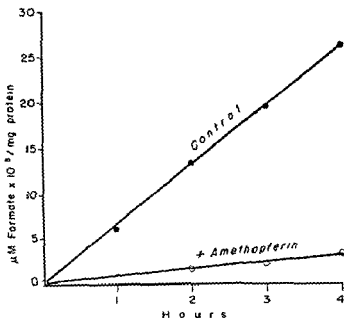


FIG. 3. Formate incorporation by chronic granulocytic leukemia cells as a function of time. Effect of amethopterin.

in sensitivity to amethopterin. Formate uptake by cells from normal individuals or from patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia was essentially unaffected by amethopterin at any concentration. Formate incorporation by cells from patients with granulocytic leukemia was markedly inhibited, usually by 80% or more, whereas that of cells from patients with adult acute leukemia was inhibited by only 30 to 50%.

Several interesting questions may be raised at this point. Can clinical resistance to the folic acid antagonists be related to differences in relative extents of the resistant and sensitive pathways of formate metabolism as clinical resistance to the drug develops? Is the partial resistance of

the granulocytic cells by amethopterin due to the presence of two populations of leukocytes one sensitive to and the other resistant to amethopterin or are there two pathways of formate incorporation in all the cells? These are some of the questions on which we have speculated and which we hope to answer in future work.

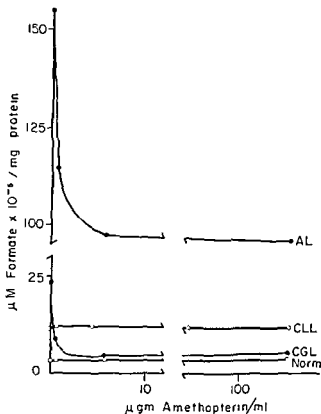


FIG 4 Formate incorporation by leukocytes as a function of amethopterin concentration. Abbreviations same as in Fig 2.

If the effect of amethopterin is a specific one, it should be reversible by citrovorum factor. This is in fact the case, as is shown in Fig 5. Two points are evident—the addition of leucovorin causes a stimulation of formate incorporation into the CGL cells and the inhibitory effect of amethopterin can be overcome by relatively large amounts of leucovorin. The relation is such as to suggest a competitive relationship between amethopterin and citrovorum factor. Folic acid exerts neither of these effects.

The effects of a number of other inhibitors on formate incorporation have also been studied. Unfortunately there are several complications in the use of some of these inhibitors in comparison with amethopterin. In the first place the dose response curves are far less consistent and inhibition may require far larger concentrations—outside those which

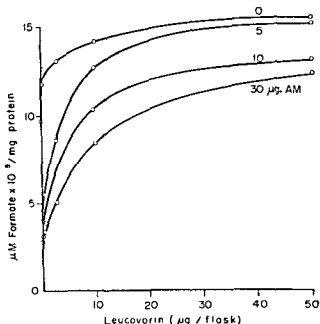


FIG. 5. Reversal of amethopterin inhibition of formate incorporation by leucovorin.

could conceivably be involved in clinical chemotherapy—for *in vitro* effects. Some of these data are shown in Fig. 6.

Another problem is the fact that some inhibitors may show a considerable time lag before inhibition becomes manifest. Even high concentrations of azaserine, for example, do not inhibit at all for the first 30 to 60 minutes and maximum effectiveness is achieved only after 2 to 3 hours. It is evident that consistent results with azaserine will require a preincubation period, since the extent of inhibition depends on how long the incubation is run. In spite of these difficulties, which tend to obscure rational interpretation, I have summarized in Table I the effects of a number of inhibitors on the incorporation of formate into the "gross protein fraction." At the top of this table the means and standard deviations of formate uptake into the four types of leukocytes are expressed as micro

the granulocytic cells by amethopterin due to the presence of two populations of leukocytes one sensitive to and the other resistant to amethopterin or are there two pathways of formate incorporation in all the cells? These are some of the questions on which we have speculated and which we hope to answer in future work.

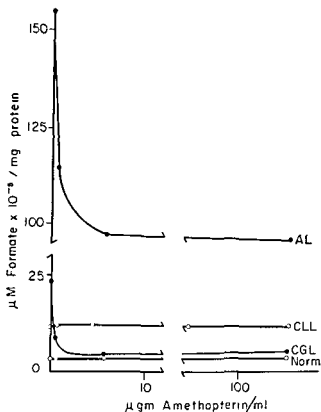


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moles  $\times 10^5$  per milligram of protein in a 4 hour incubation period. As has already been pointed out only the CGL cells are highly sensitive to amethopterin with the acute leukemia cells being moderately inhibited and the normal and CLL cells being essentially unaffected. So far as it has been studied the effects of Daraprim mimicked the effects of amethopterin.

Although Myleran has a marked effect on the clinical course of chronic granulocytic leukemia it does not affect the *in vitro* incorporation of formate into the leukocytes in this *in vitro* system. Neither does it affect

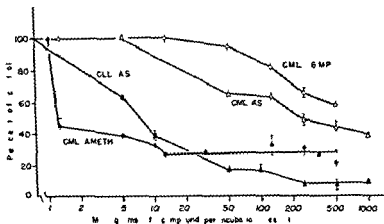


FIG. 6. Dose-response curves for some inhibitors of formate incorporation. CGL = chronic granulocytic leukemia; CLL = chronic lymphocytic leukemia; AMETH = amethopterin; AS = azaserine; 6MP = 6-mercaptopurine.

the incorporation of other isotopic precursors that have been used including glycine, adenine and phosphate.

6-Mercaptopurine has shown only moderate effects on formate uptake even at very high concentrations.

Azaserine is uniformly inhibitory on formate uptake into all types of abnormal leukocytes and somewhat less so with the normal cells. Some of the difficulties of interpretation of these data have been mentioned however.

Cortisone has had no effect on formate uptake in any of the cells investigated.

Studies on the effect of these agents on the incorporation of other isotopic precursors into the gross protein and nucleic acid fraction have been too limited to merit such credence. With this reservation however

TABLE I  
EFFECT OF SEVERAL AGENTS ON FORMATE INCORPORATION INTO THE GROSS PROTEIN FRACTION OF LEUKOCYTES

Inhibitor	Formate uptake in			AL cells 60.0 ± 15.2 (13)
	Normal cells 4.8 ± 0.6 (33)	CLL cells 11.1 ± 5.1 (35)	CGL cells 22.1 ± 8.2 (49)	
Percent inhibition				
Amethopterin (100 γ/ml)	3.9 ± 4.1 (33)	6.7 ± 5.4 (25)	80.5 ± 8.2 (49)	35.0 ± 15 (13)
Diuraprim (100 γ/ml)	—	— 8.0 (3)	83.8 ± 6.8 (8)	—
Myleran (100 γ/ml)	—	— 2.9 ± 15.2 (5)	— 0.6 ± 8.1 (13)	— 6.0 (1)
6-Mercaptopurine (100 γ/ml)	27.5 ± 10.1 (5)	0 + 9.5 (8)	32.0 ± 23.1 (17)	1.7 ± 19.1 (9)
Ascorbic (450 γ/ml)	22.1 ± 6.7 (4)	56.1 ± 15.2 (14)	59.2 ± 5.5 (5)	58.2 (2)
Cortisone (100 γ/ml)	— 4.5 ± 10.5 (4)	— 2.6 (3)	6.5 ± 16.0 (6)	— 16.1 ± 13 (4)
2,6-Diaminopurine (100 γ/ml)	—	—	40.7 ± 6.2 (5)	—

Expressed as micromoles of formate  $\times 10^7$  incorporated per milligram of protein in 4 hours at 37° in an atmosphere of 95% O<sub>2</sub> - 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and a medium of normal serum containing 6 mg of glucose and 0.67 μM of formate per milliliter with standard deviation. The number of experiments is given in parentheses.



moles  $\times 10$  per milligram of protein in a 4 hour incubation period. As has already been pointed out only the CGL cells are highly sensitive to amethopterin with the acute leukemia cells being moderately inhibited and the normal and CLL cells being essentially unaffected. So far as it has been studied the effects of Daraprim mimicked the effects of amethopterin.

Although Mylerin has a marked effect on the clinical course of chronic granulocytic leukemia it does not affect the *in vitro* incorporation of formate into the leukocytes in this *in vitro* system. Neither does it affect

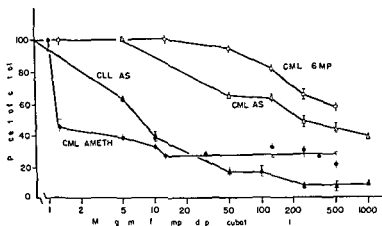


FIG. 6. Dose response curves for some inhibitors of formate incorporation. CGL = chronic granulocytic leukemia. CLL = chronic lymphocytic leukemia. AMETH = amethopterin. AS = azaserine. 6MP = 6-mercaptopurine.

the incorporation of other isotopic precursors that have been used including glycine, adenine, and phosphate.

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Cortisone has had no effect on formate uptake in any of the cells investigated.

Studies on the effect of these agents on the incorporation of other isotopic precursors into the gross protein and nucleic acid fraction have been too limited to merit such credence. With this reservation however

I should like to indicate the status of this work at the present time. Table II shows the effects of several agents on the incorporation of glycine- $C^{14}$  into the gross protein fraction of the different types of leukocytes, each value representing the average of two or three separate experiments. It is seen that the rate of glycine incorporation into leukocytes follows the same order as that obtained with formate. Amethopterin had no effect on glycine incorporation of any of the cells. Isolated RNA nucleotides or amino acids have not yet been studied in cells incubated with  $C^{14}$  glycine and any differential effects into these com-

TABLE II  
EFFECT OF SEVERAL AGENTS ON GLYCINE- $C^{14}$  INCORPORATION INTO THE PROTEIN FRACTION OF LEUKOCYTES

Inhibitor	Glycine- $C^{14}$ uptake in		
	Normal cells	CLL cells	CGL cells
	304	845	310
Per cent inhibition			
Amethopterin (100 $\gamma$ /ml)	25	30	38
6-Mercaptopurine (100 $\gamma$ /ml)	—	0	—
Myleran (100 $\gamma$ /ml)	—	40	40
Azaserine (300 $\gamma$ /ml)	27	78	26

Expressed as micromoles  $\times 10^{-3}$  incorporated per milligram in 4 hours

ponents are not yet evident. However, most of the radioactivity with this isotope no doubt resides in the amino acids—primarily serine and glycine.

Myleran also had no effect on glycine incorporation into the gross protein fraction. The only agent which had any consistent effect was azaserine, with a suggestion that CLL cells are somewhat more sensitive than CGL or normal cells. Results somewhat parallel with those obtained with  $C^{14}$  glycine have been obtained in preliminary experiments with cells incubated with adenine- $C^{14}$ . The order of isotope uptake is the same as that observed with formate and glycine. The most pronounced inhibitory effect was obtained with azaserine acting on cells from patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia. These results with glycine and adenine must be regarded as highly tentative since they represent experiments with only two or three patients.

Thus far we have talked only about the incorporation into the gross

protein fraction. For any real insight into leukocyte metabolism and the action of antileukemic agents it is essential to know more about the components and the positions into which isotopic precursors are incorporated. Formate for example is incorporated into the purines adenine and guanine and into serine, methionine and histidine. Does incorporation into all these components involve a common intermediate and do agents like amethopterin inhibit equally the incorporation into all these components? Figure 7 serves as a point of departure for consideration.

TABLE III  
EFFECTS OF INHIBITORS ON ADENINE 8 C<sup>14</sup> INCORPORATION INTO THE  
PROTEIN FRACTION OF LEUCOCYTES

Inhibitor	Adenine 8 C <sup>14</sup> uptake in		
	Normal cells	CLL cells	CGL cells
	34	63	73
Per cent inhibition			
Amethopterin (100 $\gamma$ /ml)	35	26	16
6-Mercaptopurine (100 $\gamma$ /ml)	~	12	6
Myleran (100 $\gamma$ /ml)	~	12	15
Azaserine (300 $\gamma$ /ml)	13	81	9

Expressed as micromoles  $\times 10^5$  incorporated per milligram in 4 hours

of this question and suggests two situations for formate incorporation by alternate pathways.

Consider the case where amethopterin inhibits only the upper pathway of each situation, leaving the lower pathways unaffected. In the upper situation the distribution of the isotope in the final products would be unaltered. In the lower situation however the incorporation of the isotope into certain products would be markedly reduced, whereas the incorporation into others would not be markedly affected.

Experimentally the effect of amethopterin on formate incorporation corresponds to the upper situation, namely a parallel inhibition of incorporation into all the components studied. This is shown in Table IV. Here it is evident that amethopterin inhibits the incorporation of radioformate into the total protein fraction by about 80%. The incorporation into RNA, adenine, RNA, guanine, protein-bound serine, and acid-soluble

TABLE IV  
DISTRIBUTION OF RADIOACTIVITY FROM  $C^{14}$  FORMATE IN SEVERAL COMPONENTS OF CNIL CELLS EFFECT OF ANETHOPTERIN

Gross protein	Control		Anethopterin unlabeled	
	$4.1 \times 10$	$\mu\text{c}/100 \text{ mg protein}$	$0.9 \times 10$	$\mu\text{c}/100 \text{ mg protein}$
	$\mu\text{c}/\mu\text{M}$	$\mu\text{c}/100 \text{ mg protein}$	$\mu\text{c}/\mu\text{M}$	$\mu\text{c}/100 \text{ mg protein}$
Protein bound	$0.12 \times 10$	$2.9 \times 10$	$0.02 \times 10$	$0.58 \times 10$
serum				
RNA adenine	$0.13 \times 10$	$0.1 \times 10$ †	$0.037 \times 10$	$0.028 \times 10$ †
RNA guanine	$0.1 \times 10$	$0.17 \times 10$ ‡	$0.01 \times 10$	$0.02 \times 10$ †
Acid soluble ATI	$1.0 \times 10$	—	$0.09 \times 10$	—

Calculated from average of 25% serine in gross protein fraction

† Calculated from an estimated content of  $0.78 \mu\text{M}$  RNA adenine per  $100 \text{ mg protein}$

‡ Calculated from an estimated content of  $1.72 \mu\text{M}$  RNA guanine per  $100 \text{ mg protein}$

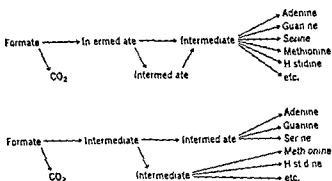


FIG. 7 Possible alternate pathways of formate metabolism

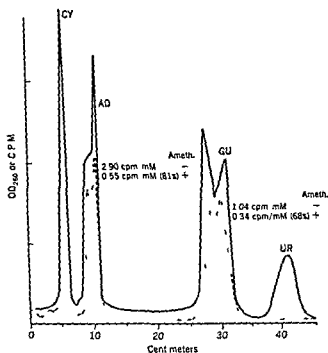


FIG. 8 Incorporation of  $C^{14}$  formate into the purines of ribonucleic acid of CGL cells. RNA isolated after incubation of CGL cells with  $C^{14}$  formate was hydrolyzed to the nucleotides. These were separated by chromatographic methods from radioactive contaminants and the nucleotides separated by paper ionophoresis. One-centimeter segments were eluted and the concentration and radioactivity of each eluate determined.

ATP (and other acid soluble nucleotides) was inhibited to an equal extent. It is evident from this work that most of the radioactivity in the protein bound fraction resides in serine and less than 10% in the RNA purine nucleotides. This table also shows that the specific activity of the acid soluble ATP was some tenfold higher than the specific activity of the RNA nucleotides.

Figure 8 shows the results of ionophoretic separation of the nucleotides from RNA of chronic granulocytic cells incubated with  $C^{14}$  formate

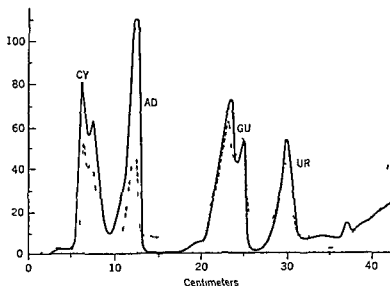


FIG. 9. Incorporation of  $P^3 O_4$  into the nucleotide of ribonucleic acid of CGL cells. RNA isolated after incubation of CGL cells with  $P^3 O_4$  was hydrolyzed to the nucleotide. The nucleotides were separated by chromatographic methods from radioactive contaminants and the nucleotides separated by paper ionophoresis. One centimeter segments were eluted and the concentration and radioactivity of each eluate determined.

Fraction		RSA control	RSA amethopterin
Protein bound	P	19	19
Cytidylic	P	26	25
Adenylic	P	46	46
Guanidylic	P	34	31
Uridylic	P	43	49

$$RSA = \frac{cpm/\mu M \text{ P in fraction} \times 100}{cpm/\mu M \text{ P in inorganic} \times 100}$$

It is seen that only the adenine and guanine have radioactivity and that the activity of both is decreased to 20 to 30% of the uninhibited level by the presence of amethopterin.

The situation observed when the incubation is carried out with radioactive phosphate instead of with  $C^{14}$  formate is quite different. This is shown in Fig. 9. Here all the RNA nucleotides are radioactive as expected. The presence of amethopterin had no effect on the specific activities of the nucleotides, however. This dissociation of  $P^3O_4$  from  $C^{14}$  formate turnover demonstrates that incorporation of phosphate and of formate may proceed independently and may indicate that such incorporation may not represent true *de novo* synthesis of ribonucleotides.

In summary, then, it is evident that human leukocytes of different types demonstrate interesting differences in metabolism. They differ markedly in their rates of nucleic acid and protein biosynthesis or turnover and in their sensitivity to chemotherapeutic agents. Such observations hold forth some hope that these differences may one day be exploited in the chemotherapy of leukemia. The data are still too fragmentary to permit any conclusions correlating clinical with *in vitro* effectiveness of any drug. If such a correlation for any agent is found, however, we may have a means of selecting on a rational basis the drug to be used with individual leukemia patients. It is possible that resistance to these agents may be detected biochemically before clinical resistance becomes manifest. In any case it will be most interesting to see whether the mechanism of action of potential chemotherapeutic agents can be elucidated, whether the biochemical basis for resistance can be determined, and whether this method can be used to screen potential chemotherapeutic agents on human material.

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Studies on Resistance to Folic Acid Antagonists<sup>1</sup>

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The importance of drug resistance as a serious limitation on the usefulness of compounds employed in the treatment of bacterial or parasitic infections of man or used in the control of insect vectors of disease is well known (12 28 38 39 53 60 94). Even more important is the problem of drug resistance in the chemotherapy of neoplastic diseases; thus in leukemia defense mechanisms seem to be relatively ineffective against aberrant cells produced by the body. In some cases at least the effective chemotherapy of leukemia may require the destruction of all neoplastic cells. The experiments of Furth and Kahn (41) which showed that a lymphoid leukemia in mice can be transferred by means of a single leukemic cell give emphasis to this important aspect of the problem. A similar qualification for effectiveness may be applicable to the chemotherapy of solid tumors as more effective agents become available for their treatment since drug resistance has been observed in experimental neoplasms other than leukemia for example in sarcoma 180 to 6 mercaptopurine (23) and in the Walker rat sarcoma to a derivative of nitrogen mustard (24).

The eventual failure in the continued usefulness of those drugs which are effective initially in the treatment of certain leukemic individuals is generally attributed to the emergence of a drug resistant population of leukemic cells although direct proof of this postulate is lacking. The considerable extrapolation from studies of resistance in transplantable leukemias in mice to resistance in the spontaneous leukemias of humans

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should be recognized. A logical strategy requires exploration of the problem in the area where such studies are technically feasible; however, with the intent that the characteristics which can be associated with drug resistance in mouse leukemias may eventually be tested by the direct study of human leukemic cells to provide an explanation for the failures in treatment after complete remissions. The development of drug resistant lines of leukemia in mice (18, 67, 69, 76, 77) and their detailed study (73) has broadened our perspective of the problem and certain correlations between mouse and human leukemias provide an encouraging basis for such investigations (16, 74).

Law and co-workers (77) have presented a sobering observation, namely, that resistance to 6-mercaptopurine in leukemic mice (L 1210) unlike bacterial resistance to this compound is accompanied by resistance to all other purine analogs tested: 8-azaguanine, 8-azaxanthine, 2,6-diaminopurine, thioguanine, purine, and chloropurine. In contrast, a 6-mercaptopurine resistant strain of *L. casei* remained sensitive to adenine antagonists (33). The occurrence of cross resistance among the folic acid antagonists which was noted earlier in different mouse leukemias (21, 69, 72) has been observed clinically. Murphy and co-workers (81) found that the development of resistance to amethopterin (Methotrexate) in children with acute leukemia conferred resistance to other folic acid antagonists, including the diaminodichlorophenylpyrimidines, but not to 6-mercaptopurine or cortisone. Although the number of new effective agents may increase rapidly, the number of potentially useful new antileukemic compounds is likely to be limited appreciably by the occurrence of cross resistance. However, cross resistance may provide an important indication of similarities in the mechanism of action of different antimetabolites, or of similarities in the means by which variant cells are able to circumvent the adverse effects of related drugs.

In addition to resistance, a phenomenon described as "dependence" has been observed in some sublines of leukemia (67, 68, 77). The administration of certain antagonists of folic acid or purine analogs to leukemic mice carrying the respective sublines caused significant acceleration of the rate of growth of leukemic tissues, resulting in a decrease in the survival time of the treated animals as compared with the untreated mice. Instances of microbial dependence on various antibiotics also have been described (39). Miller and Bohnhoff (78) found that meningococcal variants dependent on streptomycin remained nonvirulent for mice unless the animals received streptomycin, in which case a fatal meningococcal sepsis developed. The direct study of the metabolism of amethopterin dependent leukemic cells demonstrated that the presence

of amethopterin actually doubled the rate of synthesis *de novo* of nucleic acids as measured by the incorporation of sodium formate  $C^{14}$  (98). Furthermore a reversal of the metabolite antimetabolite relationship was demonstrated in an amethopterin dependent leukemia in which pteroyl glutamic acid (synthetic folic acid) or leucovorin (synthetic folinic acid) counteracted the growth promoting activity of amethopterin (67). A similar paradox was found in the reversal by guanylic acid and guanosine of the growth promoting activity of 8 azaguanine for the 8 azaguanine dependent leukemic cells (68-73). At present there is no satisfactory explanation of this baffling phenomenon.

The occurrence of resistance of leukemic cells to one drug (or a group of related compounds) may be associated with changes in the metabolism of the cells in a way that confers sensitivity to a different type of compound. A most significant finding by Law and co workers (74-77) which may lighten the shadow of cross resistance concerns an increased sensitivity to amethopterin associated with resistance to or dependence on 6-mercaptopurine or 8-azaguanine. However other amethopterin resistant or dependent leukemias derived from this line (L-1210) were not more sensitive than the parent line to the purine antagonists. Burchenal (17) has noted an increase in sensitivity to 6-mercaptopurine in an amethopterin resistant line (I/A) of mouse leukemia. The term "colateral sensitivity" has been used in microbial studies to designate the increased sensitivity to one antibiotic associated with increased resistance to another (100). Although this phenomenon has been noted infrequently with antibiotics (99-100) several observers have described the increased sensitivity to amethopterin of selected bacterial strains which were resistant to 6-mercaptopurine (32-35) and the increased sensitivity to purine and pyrimidine analogs of amethopterin resistant and sulfonamide resistant bacteria (50-54, 93). The occurrence of colateral sensitivity would seem to imply the existence of an interrelationship between the metabolic pathways affected by the two types of antimetabolites.

In an important extension of earlier studies Law (75) has found that the treatment of a lymphocytic leukemia of mice with amethopterin after a brief course of therapy with 6-mercaptopurine resulted in a very much greater antileukemic activity than could be achieved by the simultaneous administration of these two agents or by a reversal of this sequence of treatment. Although in other experiments as has been described an increased sensitivity to amethopterin was associated with resistance to the purine antagonists it is doubtful that these results could be attributed to the selection of a population of cells resistant to

6 mercaptopurine. In other experiments leukemic lines resistant to 6 mercaptopurine or methopterin were selected only after repeated transfers of the cells in animals receiving the antagonists (72-77). Also leukemic cells transferred from moribund animals which had received an initial course of therapy with either agent alone appear to retain their sensitivity to the drugs (75). Clearly the changes in metabolism associated with collateral sensitivity and with the increased effectiveness of sequential treatments deserve intensive study. These investigations imply that the metabolism of the leukemic cells can be manipulated by appropriate treatment of the host with chemical agents in a manner that may amplify the meager basis for the selective toxicity of the presently available antileukemic drugs.

### The Origin of Drug Resistance

Although we are concerned more with the characteristics of resistant cells in this presentation than with the origin of these traits, several comments in this latter regard may be pertinent. The development of our ideas concerning the origin of resistant leukemic cells has relied on important advances in the field of microbial genetics (12-22). Certain instances of resistance to antibiotics such as streptomycin resistance in *E. coli* can be attributed to gene mutations which can occur in the absence of the drug (12-22, 82). Adaptive processes or drug induced resistance appear to be of lesser importance in microbial resistance than the stable heritable resistance associated with spontaneous mutations (12) although an adaptive phenomenon can occur in certain instances (26). Hotchkiss (58-59) has shown that purified preparations of deoxyribonucleic acid derived from resistant variants can transmit the property of resistance to penicillin or streptomycin in pneumococci. In each case transformations to high or low levels of resistance could be related to the level of resistance of the strain used for the preparation of the transforming extract (59). Also linked characteristics were transferred by DNA from strains bearing two mutant properties (60). This process apparently involves the transfer of a mutation by means of the isolated genetic material indicating that the deoxyribonucleic acid of the resistant cell is indeed woven in a pattern differing from that of the sensitive cell. It is not clear whether a similar phenomenon was involved in the restoration of sensitivity to penicillin of penicillin resistant bacteria exposed to sensitive cultures or to bacterial autolysates (43, 102, 106). These studies raise a question as yet unanswered as to whether a corresponding transforming principle can be associated with drug resistance in leukemic cells.

Resistance to amethopterin in mouse leukemias has been shown to be a stable heritable characteristic which persists even after repeated transfer of the cells in the absence of the drug (14 69 74) Lw (71) applied the experimental design of the Luria Delbruck fluctuation test to a study of amethopterin resistance in an experimental leukemia (L 1210) This elaborate experiment provides the best evidence available that resistance arises spontaneously in the leukemic cells and that the drug is in microbial resistance to antibiotics acts solely as a selecting agent Further resistance to amethopterin in this leukemia increased in a step wise manner on successive transfers (71 72) a situation analogous to the multistep pattern of resistance to penicillin in bacteria (11 27) The occurrence of another pattern of resistance in a plasma cell leukemia was observed by Potter (75 92) who found that profound resistance to azaserine occurred after a single transfer This rapid development of resistance appears to be a counterpart of the one step microbial resistance observed with streptomycin (27) and other drugs (101) Such an occurrence would place a serious limitation on the effectiveness of an antileukemic agent

The evidence that drug resistance in experimental leukemias is mutational in origin provides a rational basis for an attempt to suppress the emergence of a resistant population by the combination of two or more drugs with differing actions in order to limit the opportunity for the occurrence of two or more mutations conferring resistance to each drug Combinations of amethopterin with certain purine analogs have been found to be measurably more effective in experimental leukemias than either drug alone (70 77 96) although the degree of potentiation attained has not been impressive similar combinations are receiving clinical evaluation It is not clear to what extent such synergism may result from suppression of the development of otherwise resistant strains or from an increased potency of the combinations as compared to either drug alone The mutational origin of resistance would also require increased attention to any mutagenic property of a new drug The possibility that a drug may suppress the emergence of resistant populations of cells by slowing the rate of mutation appears to be impractical but not impossible Thus the nucleoside guanosine reduced the spontaneous rate of mutation to T5 phage resistance in *E. coli* (91) An intriguing effect on the emergence of a resistant population relates to the observation that the presence of a very small amount of uracil in the medium in which *S. faecalis* is grown prevented the emergence of mutants resistant to 6 azauracil a selection of which occurs invariably in the absence of the metabolite (51)

The selective action of amethopterin (or other drugs) on leukemic cells as opposed to normal tissues must vary considerably in different individuals. Thus in the acute lymphocytic leukemia of children the effectiveness of amethopterin covers a spectrum from complete remission to little or no beneficial effect (15-36). In the body a barrier which presumably limits the degree of antileukemic action attainable with this drug is the severely toxic effect which it exerts at higher dosage levels on normal cells particularly those of the hematopoietic tissue and the intestinal epithelium. (In the test tube strains of bacteria can be selected which are resistant to concentrations of amethopterin or other drugs limited only by the solubility of the compound in the culture

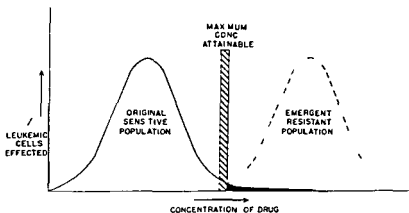


FIG. 1. The emergence of a drug-resistant population of leukemic cell

medium). The proportion of the population of leukemic cells susceptible to increasing concentrations of a drug in any individual undoubtedly follows some normal distribution curve (Fig. 1). The barrier to higher dosage imposed by the susceptibility of normal cells indicated as "maximum concentration attainable" may occur at the average sensitivity of the leukemic population (no beneficial effect) in one individual whereas in another such a barrier may occur at a concentration permitting the survival of relatively few leukemic cells (good remission) as indicated by the darkened area in Fig. 1. The growth of those cells would give rise in time to a population capable of surviving in slightly higher concentrations of the drug. From the standpoint of practical chemotherapy in order to be described as "resistant" the emergent population of leukemic cells needs only to possess a degree of sensitivity to the drug analogous to that of certain normal tissues. Thus slight changes in certain characteristics of the leukemic cell rather than the

occurrence of striking differences may be sufficient to confer chemotherapeutic resistance and may be of major importance in the origin of the resistant cells in the human leukemias

### The Nature of Drug Resistance

A question to which we need an answer concerns the characteristics of the resistant cells *directly responsible* for the loss of sensitivity to amethopterin or other agents. Such an answer requires an evaluation of the different characteristics which may be involved. The various mechanisms that may account for the resistance of leukemia cells are suggested by a broad survey of different instances of drug resistance in bacteria and microorganisms (3 23 28 29 39 53 57 72 89 97) these may be listed as follows

- 1 Inactivation of the drug or decreased activation
- 2 Reduced uptake of the drug associated with an altered permeability or a reduced binding capacity
- 3 Ability to bind the drug in an inactive form
- 4 Increased formation of a competing metabolite
- 5 Increase in the amount or the efficiency of the enzyme using the metabolite
- 6 Decrease in the relative affinity of the susceptible enzyme for the chemotherapeutic agent as compared with the affinity for the appropriate metabolite
- 7 Development of an alternate metabolic pathway
- 8 Utilization of exogenous metabolites which are products of the inhibited reactions

Two general observations can be made concerning these different means by which a cell may circumvent the toxic action of a drug: only a few logical possibilities are apparent at present and most of these can be tested experimentally. In many cases however the lack of a detailed understanding of the site of action of the drug limits an approach to the problem. In any single instance of drug resistance an evaluation of the relative importance of any individual characteristic requires investigation of the possible occurrence of these characteristics

### A Model System for the Study of Drug Resistance

Resistance to amethopterin has several advantages as a model which permits more detailed study than is possible with other antileukemic agents or antibiotics. (1) the metabolic alteration of folic acid by leukemic cells *in vitro* is inhibited by concentrations of amethopterin which are attainable in plasma and tissues (19-40 83). (2) metabolic systems activated by the functional forms of folic acid such as certain

steps in the biosynthesis of purines (13-46-49) or the interconversion of serine and glycine (7-8-63-66) are suitable for the comparative study of these reactions in sensitive and resistant cells (3) methods are available for the separation (ion exchange and paper chromatography) and determination (sensitive microbial fluorometric or colorimetric assays) of both the antagonist and the products of the reactions involved (6-108) (4) amethopterin resistant strains of bacteria (20-56) and amethopterin resistant and dependent sublines of leukemia in mice (18-67-69-76) have been developed (5) the phenomena of cross resistance and collateral sensitivity can be studied and (6) the direct study of cells from leukemic patients both sensitive to or initially or subsequently refractory to treatment with amethopterin is feasible

A detailed study of resistance to the folic acid antagonists may be useful in suggesting characteristics which may be applicable to instances of resistance to other drugs. However the nature of resistance to an analog of a vitamin which interferes with the formation or function of a cofactor may differ considerably from resistance to an analog of a component of nucleic acid which may interfere with the incorporation of a structural unit into nucleic acids or exert its effect by the formation of fraudulent nucleic acids. The extent to which analogs of purines and pyrimidines can interfere with the formation or function of cofactors containing their corresponding metabolites has not yet been determined but catalytic functions would be expected to be most sensitive in reflecting measurable effects resulting from such inhibition.

#### The Site of Action of the 4-Amino Analogs of Folic Acid

The effectiveness of aminopterin and amethopterin in blocking the conversion of pteroylglutamic acid (PGA) to folinic acid (citrovorum factor) *in vitro* and *in vivo* (88) has been studied extensively (6-105). More recently we have found that the alteration of PGA to N<sup>5</sup> formyltetrahydro PGA (folinic acid SF<sup>1</sup> leucovorin) can be divided into two steps: an enzymatic reaction and one which can occur nonenzymatically. (1) the metabolic product derived from PGA on incubation with preparations of pigeon liver or suspensions of bacterial or leukemic cells appears to be a heat labile compound. (2) this product can be converted to the stable N<sup>5</sup> formyltetrahydro PGA on heating in the presence of ascorbic acid or related compounds (under aerobic conditions the labile compound appears to be oxidized to a product presumably N<sup>10</sup> formyl PGA which is measurable as folic acid but which does not have folinic acid activity) (84-86-89-109). The first step but not the second is inhibited by the 4 amino analogs of PGA.



The apparent specificity of the requirement of the organism used for the citrovorum factor or folic acid assay (*Pediococcus cerevisiae* 8081 better known as *Leuconostoc citrovorum*) is related to the unique stability of the N<sup>5</sup> formyl derivative of tetrahydro PGA during the autoclaving of the diluted samples with the medium in the usual microbial assay. The folic acid activity of other reduced derivatives of PGA is measurable by the addition of unheated samples protected by the presence of sodium ascorbate to assay tubes containing autoclaved medium (84) or by a pad plate assay (64) in which the samples on filter paper disks are placed on solid medium containing ascorbate (84). In order to measure accurately the product of the reaction inhibited by amethopterin it is necessary to use a modified procedure for the assay or to autoclave the incubated material at 120° for 30 minutes in the presence of ascorbate to ensure conversion of the heat labile product to the stable form of folic acid thus permitting an indirect measurement of the product by the use of the usual microbial assay. We have found that the latter procedure is more convenient when it is necessary to assay a large number of samples.

The effect of aminopterin in blocking the formation of the heat labile compound by leukemic cells is shown by the tracings of the folic acid bioautograms (Fig. 2) the main product derived from PGA was a heat labile compound at  $R_f$  0.2 which was converted on heating to a compound behaving analogously to synthetic folic acid ( $R_f$  0.6). Incubations carried out in the presence of aminopterin resulted in the appearance of only faint zones of growth of the aminopterin resistant organism. The addition of aminopterin after the incubation as expected did not influence the formation of the stable folic acid from the heat labile compound. A similar labile compound appeared in the urine of normal subjects after the ingestion of PGA (84, 110). Recent reports suggest that this compound is similar to anhydroleucovorin (1, 95).

Blakley (7, 8) demonstrated that aminopterin blocked the ability of PGA but not tetrahydro PGA to activate the interconversion of serine and glycine. These investigations indicate that the 4 amino analogs of PGA interfere with the reduction of the pteridine ring necessary for the formation of the functional form of folic acid certainly they interfere less effectively with the utilization of synthetic folic acid which is also altered in the body to the functional forms of the vitamin (9). Since large amounts of folic acid can counteract the toxic action of these antagonists Goldin and co workers (45) have tested the possibility that a selective protective effect of folic acid for normal tissues might per

mit the use of larger doses of these antagonists necessary to achieve greater antileukemic action

### A Test for the Sensitivity of Leukemic Cells to Amethopterin

Suspensions of ascitic cells were much more satisfactory than preparations of lymphomatous tissue of the same line of leukemia (L 4946) for the study of the effect of amethopterin on the conversion of PCA to products measurable as folinic acid (87). A modified Krebs Ringer

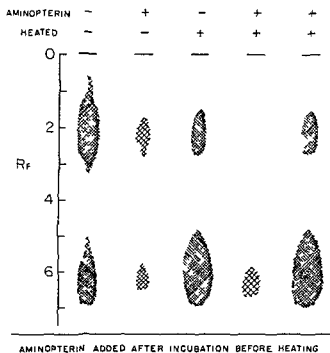


FIG. 2. Tracings of folinic acid bioautograms showing the inhibition by aminopterin of the formation by leukemic cells (L 4946) of a heat labile compound derived from pteroylglutamic acid. Suspensions of ascitic cells (L 4946) were incubated with PCA under the conditions described in Table I. Aminopterin (10  $\gamma$ /ml) was added to some of the vessels as indicated. At the end of the anaerobic incubation the content of each vessel was covered with toluene, frozen and thawed five times and then centrifuged. The supernatant fluid of some of the samples was autoclaved at 120 for 20 minutes. Portions (0.05 ml) of each sample were placed on paper strips (Whatman No. 3, 1 inch in width) which were developed at 4 by descending solvent (0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 6). The paper strips were placed on solid assay medium (folinic acid) containing sodium ascorbate (1 mg/ml) which was seeded with an aminopterin resistant strain of *Pedococcus cerevisiae*. Zones of growth indicate the location of the active compounds.

phosphate medium (see Table I) was better than ascitic fluid as a suspending medium for the cells. The omission of  $\text{Ca}^{++}$  from the medium permitted constant agitation of the cells during the incubation without clumping. The same reaction in preparations of avian liver required the presence of  $\text{Mg}^{++}$  or  $\text{Mn}^{++}$  whereas  $\text{Ca}^{++}$  was found to be inhibitory (85).

A relationship between the dose of amethopterin administered to leukemic mice and the capacity of the cell suspensions to form folic acid *in vitro* was observed (Table I). The administration of a small dose (0.01 mg/kg) of amethopterin inhibited the reaction by approximately 50%. It may be noted however that the dose (3.0 mg/kg) which Law (72-75) found necessary for the production of a significant antileukemic action is sufficient to produce complete inhibition of this reaction in cells harvested 3 hours after treatment (Table I) and may approximate the dosage necessary to maintain this inhibition throughout the interval (48 hours) between treatments.

TABLE I

THE FORMATION OF FOLIC ACID *in vitro* BY ASCITIC LEUKEMIC CELLS (L-4948) FROM AMETHOPTERIN TREATED MICE

Dose of amethopterin mg/kg body weight	Folic acid formed on incubation <i>in vitro</i> † γ/g cells dry weight	Per cent inhibition
—	19.0	0
0.01	8.61	55
0.03	6.68	65
0.1	3.42	82
0.3	0.45	98
1.0	0.15	99

On the sixth day after the inoculation of AKR mice with an ascitic leukemia (L-4948) groups of mice were injected intraperitoneally with the different doses of amethopterin. Three hours later the ascitic cells from each group (3 mice) were pooled and washed once in a Krebs Ringer phosphate buffer.

† The leukemic cells (about 25 mg dry weight) were suspended in 2.0 ml of a Krebs Ringer phosphate medium pH 7.0 (modified by the omission of calcium chloride and by increasing the strength of the buffer to 0.05 M) containing glucose (0.01 M), DL-serine (0.01 M), sodium ascorbate (0.01 M) and pteroylglutamic acid (0.2 μmoles/ml). The incubation was carried out with constant agitation under an atmosphere of nitrogen at 37° for 2 hours. The vessels were then heated immediately at 100° for 30 minutes and the samples were prepared for microbial assay of the folic acid activity (83). The results were corrected for the content of the inactive isomer present in the synthetic reference standard. An amethopterin resistant strain of *Pedococcus cerevisiae* 8081 was used when an effect of the antagonist on the usual assay organism might be anticipated.

The relationship between the concentration of amethopterin present in the suspending medium and the amount of folinic acid formed during the incubation of the suspensions of ascitic cells (L 1210 azaguanine dependent) is shown in Fig 3. This system *in vitro* is highly sensitive (50% inhibition by 0.05  $\mu$ /ml) to amounts of amethopterin which can be expected to occur in the plasma and body fluids as a result of treatment with the drug (19-40). This technique is also applicable to the

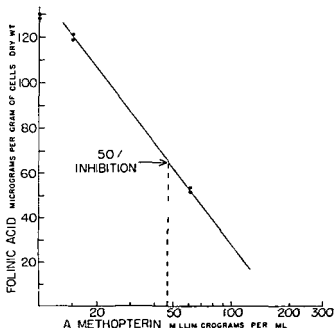


FIG 3 The sensitivity to amethopterin of the formation of folinic acid by ascitic leukemic cells incubated with pteroylglutamic acid

measurement of the sensitivity to amethopterin of this reaction in peripheral cells of leukemic patients (Table II).<sup>3</sup> Considerable information will be required before such sensitivity can be correlated with the effectiveness of treatment with amethopterin.

#### Comparison *In Vitro* of Closely Related Lines of Leukemia

A collaborative study with Dr. Lloyd W. Law of the National Cancer Institute was undertaken to determine whether the differences in sensitivity to treatment with amethopterin *in vivo* of certain sensitive and

<sup>3</sup> The generous assistance of Dr. David H. Clement and the staff of the Pediatrics Service of the Grace New Haven Community Hospital is gratefully acknowledged.

resistant lines of leukemia in mice could be correlated with studies *in vitro* using these techniques

The 8 azaguanine resistant (L 1210 8AG R) and dependent (L 1210 AG D) sublines of leukemia were much more sensitive to treatment with amethopterin as indicated by survival time than was the parent line (L-1210-S) (74-77). Washed ascitic cells of the 8 azaguanine dependent line and the sensitive line were incubated with synthetic folic acid using the system just described. The 8 azaguanine dependent line formed

TABLE II

THE SENSITIVITY TO AMETHOPTERIN OF THE FORMATION OF FOLINIC ACID BY HUMAN LEUKEMIC CELLS INCUBATED WITH FOLIC ACID

Added to suspending medium		Folonic acid formed during incubation $\gamma/10^{10}$ cells	
Folic acid 0.2 $\mu$ M/ml	Amethopterin $\gamma$ ml	Patient R H	Patient C M
—	—	0.08	0.13
+	—	2.47	5.20
+	—	2.75	—
+	0.03	—	2.60 (51)
+	0.1	0.65 (76)	1.14 (80)
+	0.3	0.19 (96)	0.55 (93)

The buffy layer from a sample of heparinized blood (2.0 ml) was washed once in Krebs-Ringer phosphate buffer. Because of the limited amount of material cell counts of the suspensions used for each incubation were made directly. Patient R H was an 8-year-old boy with acute leukemia (white count 225,000). Patient C M was a 4-year-old boy with acute leukemia (white count 120,000). The conditions for the incubation were the same as those described for the preceding experiments. The per cent inhibition of the reaction is indicated by the figures in parentheses.

three to six times as much folinic acid as did the parent line (Table III). Because of a variable number of erythrocytes in preparations of the sensitive line the calculations were based on cell counts of the suspensions as well as on determinations of the dry weight of the cells. The addition of erythrocytes to other suspensions (L 4946) in comparable experiments did not alter the yield of folinic acid which was observed. The results based on cell counts agreed substantially with the activity based on the dry weight of the cells (Table III).

The sensitivity of this system to amethopterin (Fig. 3) was studied also in these two lines of leukemia and in lines resistant and sensitive to azaserine (Table IV). The preparation of the cells, the incubations and the microbial assays for each comparison were carried out simultaneously. In each case the concentration of amethopterin which in

hibited the formation of folinic acid by 50% was determined from a plot (see Fig. 3) based on five to eight points. The slope of the line was the same in each comparison; only the position of the line was changed. The 8 azaguanine dependent line was inhibited by less than half the concentration of amethopterin that inhibited the parent line by 50%. The difference is more marked if the comparison is related to the amount of

TABLE III  
COMPARISON OF THE ABILITY OF TWO CLOSELY RELATED LINES OF LEUKEMIC CELLS TO FORM FOLINIC ACID WHEN INCUBATED WITH FOLIC ACID

Experiment	Folic acid added	Folinic acid formed † γ/g cells dry weight		Activity	azaguanine dependent
		L 1210			sensitive
		L 1210 Sensitive	Azaguanine dependent	Dry weight	Cell count
1	—	0.52	2.87		
	+	23.5	146	6.2	—
2	—	0.65	0.95		
	+	46.5	153	3.3	2.9
3	—	1.33	2.10		
	+	23.7	130	5.5	3.9

In experiments 1 and 3 the ascitic cells were obtained from CDF<sub>1</sub> mice in experiment 2 from DBA/2 mice.

† The medium and the conditions for the incubation were the same as those described in Table I.

folinic acid represented by a 50% yield (see Table III). The azaserine resistant line required only a slightly higher concentration of amethopterin than the parent line to achieve a comparable degree of inhibition. Although the significance of these small differences has not been evaluated, the trend is as would be expected if the azaserine resistant cells had greater capacity to utilize exogenous purine derivatives which are products of the pathways *de novo* known to be sensitive to both azaserine and amethopterin. It is of interest that 50% inhibition of the reaction in both the azaserine sensitive and resistant lines occurred at higher concentrations than in the L 1210 leukemias. The sensitivity of these lines to amethopterin has not been evaluated.

These preliminary findings indicate that differences between closely related lines of leukemia (L 1210 S and L 1210 8AG D) with respect to the metabolism of folic acid are measurable *in vitro* by these techniques.

These studies are being extended to other leukemias particularly those sensitive and resistant to amethopterin

One may speculate that the increased capacity of the 8 azaguanine dependent cells to form folinic acid is associated with a greater utilization of metabolic reactions requiring the functional forms of folic acid. The greater sensitivity of these cells to amethopterin *in vivo* is strong evidence that folic acid is more essential for the growth and multiplica-

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF THE SENSITIVITY TO AMETHOPTERIN OF THE FORMATION OF FOLINIC ACID FROM FOLIC ACID BY CLOSELY RELATED LINES OF LEUKEMIC CELLS

Azatic cells	Concentration of amethopterin required for 50% inhibition of folinic acid formation mg/ml of suspending fluid	
	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
L-1210		
Azaguanine sensitive	110	70
Azaguanine dependent	45	32
Plasma cell 70429		
Azaserine sensitive	128	12
Azaserine resistant	176	174

The medium and the conditions for the incubation were the same as described in Table I and Fig. 3

tion of these cells (L-1210-8AG D) than for those of the parent line. The sensitivity of the 8-azaguanine resistant and dependent cells to amethopterin appears to be more than a casual characteristic associated with the selection of these cells. The same altered sensitivity of leukemic cells to amethopterin was associated with resistance to other purine antagonists (77-96) and similar collateral sensitivity was observed in bacterial studies (35-50, 54-93).

#### Changes in Metabolic Patterns Associated with Resistance

*Streptococcus faecalis* can grow well in a medium lacking purines provided that folic acid is supplied. Purines are used readily by this organism however if present in the medium (54-55). Similarly mammary cells both normal and neoplastic have the capacity to synthesize *de novo* the purine components of nucleic acids as measured by the incorporation of C<sup>14</sup> labeled formate or glycine and also can utilize

purines as indicated by the incorporation of  $C^{14}$  labeled adenine or guanine into the nucleic acids of the cells (5-37-98). Considerable evidence suggests that the ability to alter the proportion of the total nucleic acids derived from the *de novo* pathways of synthesis or from pathways involving the utilization of preformed purines of exogenous origin is of importance in the development of resistance to antagonists which can interfere with these metabolic pathways. If a resistant cell circumvents the effect of analogs of components of nucleic acids by alterations resulting in a decreased uptake of these agents, such changes may also sacrifice the capacity to take up the corresponding metabolites, thereby requiring that the need for such metabolites be supplied by an increase in the synthesis *de novo* of such compounds if the rate of growth of the cell is to be maintained. The role of folic acid in those reactions involving the transfer of formate in the biosynthesis of purine derivatives *de novo* has been well defined (13-46-49).

Many studies since the early experiments of Ehrlich (31) have shown that a decreased uptake of different drugs can be associated with resistance in microorganisms. The careful studies by Eagle (29-30) of the binding of penicillin by bacteria require reservation in attributing such changes to impermeability rather than a decreased binding capacity of the cytoplasm. One striking observation concerning tubercle bacilli which were resistant to isoniazid indicated that the resistant organisms, unlike the sensitive strains, did not take up isoniazid when grown in medium containing the  $C^{14}$  labeled drug (4). More specifically, in relation to nucleic acid antagonists, Elion and co-workers (33-35) observed in strains of *L. casei* that resistance to diaminopurine was associated with a decreased capacity to take up adenine and diaminopurine; also, a 6-mercaptopurine resistant strain was virtually unable to use hypoxanthine for growth and had a higher requirement for folic acid. Handschumacher and Welch (52) found that a 6-azauracil resistant strain of *S. faecalis* in contrast to the parent strain had very limited ability to take up uracil 2- $C^{14}$  from the medium.

In several instances, resistant organisms were found to have a requirement for products of the inhibited reactions. Presumably, interference by amethopterin with the synthesis of purine components of nucleic acids *de novo* resulted in the selection of amethopterin resistant strains which required preformed purines for growth even in the presence of folic acid (54). It is of interest that the requirement of this resistant strain (*S. faecalis*/A) for folic acid was about one third that of the parent strain (20-90). Also, a strain of *L. casei* which was selected for resistance to amethopterin while growing in crude medium was found



to have developed a requirement for thymine (2)

The hypothesis that a shift in the pattern of metabolism between synthesis *de novo* and utilization of metabolites of exogenous origin which are products of the inhibited reactions may be of major importance in the development of resistance is worthy of detailed examination. When drugs such as amethopterin or azaserine inactivate certain enzymes involved in the biosynthesis *de novo* of purine derivatives the cell may circumvent the blocked reactions by the development of an alternate pathway leading to the formation of the same product from simple precursors within the cell or by the utilization of such products which may

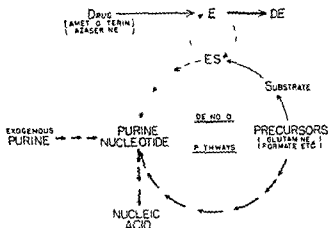


FIG. 4. The effect of a drug on the balance between the pathways of biosynthesis *de novo* and the utilization of exogenous metabolites.

be present in the surrounding medium or body fluids (Fig. 4). The ability to develop an alternate pathway *de novo* appears to be limited. On the other hand, interference with the utilization of exogenous purine derivatives may result in greater dependency on reactions *de novo* for growth and survival. The 8-azaguanine dependent cells were only twice as sensitive to amethopterin *in vitro* as were the cells of the parent line as measured by this technique, yet amethopterin increased markedly the survival time of mice carrying the 8-azaguanine dependent line (74-77). These experiments suggest that the actual difference in the concentration of a drug affecting the sensitive and resistant populations of leukemic cells (see Fig. 1) may be small in contrast to the thousandfold differences common in bacterial studies. Therefore it is suggested that slight changes in metabolism may be capable of conferring resistance

upon the leukemic cells or conversely slight changes may be associated with a much more favorable selective action of a drug

#### Other Possible Mechanisms of Resistance to Amethopterin

Although it is not possible to present in detail other studies pertinent to amethopterin resistance brief mention should be made of certain other mechanisms of resistance which could be involved

Jacobson (61-62) presented evidence that leukemic cells of mice inactivated aminopterin as measured by the mitotic arrest of tissue cultures. Although there is good evidence that aminopterin can be inactivated by bacteria (103-104) Kieler and Kieler (65) were unable to detect any destruction of amethopterin by leukemic cells in tissue culture using a specific microbial assay. Also Futterman (42) found that aminopterin inhibited the inactivation of pteroylglutamic acid by liver preparations. Since inactivation of very small amounts of amethopterin could be associated with relatively large changes in the effective concentration the ability of leukemic cells to inactivate amethopterin requires more detailed investigation.

The possibility that aminopterin can be bound in an inactive form was suggested by the finding that an amethopterin resistant strain of *S. faecalis* actually took up much more aminopterin than the sensitive strain when resting cell suspensions were incubated with the drug in an appropriate medium (2, 3). Furthermore the growth of this resistant organism and its capacity to form folic acid were inhibited more effectively by 4-amino-10-methylpteroic acid than by amethopterin even though complete cross resistance between these two closely related compounds would have been expected (2, 3).

The involvement of an increased ability to form a metabolite which can compete more effectively with the antagonist was implied by the finding that the capacity of amethopterin resistant strains of *S. faecalis* to form folic acid (10-90) was related directly to the degree of resistance to amethopterin (2, 3).

Certain species of animals particularly the rabbit and the guinea pig are remarkably refractory to the toxic effects of the folic acid antagonists (44-79). An attempt to explain this "natural resistance" indicated little difference in the rate of excretion of aminopterin by rats and guinea pigs (107). However the ability of preparations of rat liver to form folic acid was lost rapidly on dialysis whereas similar preparations of guinea pig liver treated in the same way retained this activity (107). Although the factors concerned with the stability of the preparations require detailed study it is a reasonable possibility that a greater relative

affinity of the enzyme of one species for the derivatives of folic acid could contribute to the ability of the guinea pig to tolerate fifty times the dose of aminopterin parenterally which is lethal for the rat

### Conclusion

The occurrence of drug resistance is of greater significance with regard to antileukemic agents than with reference to antibiotics because of the ineffectiveness of the defense mechanisms of the body against neoplastic cells and because of the limited selective action of those agents which are available at present. The occurrence of cross resistance may limit considerably the number of new useful compounds. Many of the possible mechanisms by which leukemic and other cells circumvent the initial effectiveness of certain drugs can be approached experimentally. The elucidation of the biochemical basis of drug resistance is a challenging problem deserving of more intensive investigation. Such studies can afford a unique opportunity to gauge the flexibility of the metabolic patterns of mammalian cells which are related to the basis for selective toxicity. More detailed knowledge of the metabolic reactions associated with changes in sensitivity to antileukemic drugs may suggest means by which the limited usefulness of present agents may be increased.

### Acknowledgment

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## Metabolic and Nutritional Variations in Drug Resistant *Streptococcus faecalis*<sup>1</sup>

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The folic acid analog 4 amino 10-methylpteroylglutamic acid (amethopterin) and the adenine analog 6-mercaptopurine (6-MP) have been used somewhat successfully in the treatment of several types of leukemia, both in children and in adults (8-16). It has been presumed that information regarding some of the mechanisms by which these drugs act could be obtained through the study of their effects on the growth of *Streptococcus faecalis* ATCC 5043. Under certain conditions *S. faecalis* requires a purine derivative for growth and under other conditions it requires folic acid or a related compound for growth (31). Furthermore, since the development of drug resistant leukemic cells probably is the major factor which prevents the complete eradication of the disease by chemotherapy, it was presumed that information regarding the alterations in drug resistant bacterial mutants might suggest mechanisms that could be operative in the drug resistant leukemic process.

Drug resistance has been observed in innumerable bacterial systems and many mechanisms have been postulated for the explanation of the phenomenon (29). Davis and Maas (10) suggested seven mechanisms to explain the resistance to sulfonamides in *Escherichia coli*. All the postulated mechanisms except the concept of increased affinity of enzyme for metabolite versus antimetabolite were shown not to be applicable to this mutant. Eagle (11) demonstrated in several bacteria that mechanisms other than detoxification are responsible for penicillin

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was noted between mutants SF MP and SF/MP A and the parent culture with the exception that thymine supplementation did not spare the amount of PGA requirement for each mutant. SF/A was quantitatively different from the other organisms five times as much PGA was required in the F PP medium and supplementation with thymine did not spare the PGA during 42 hours but did in 70 hours whereas the inclusion of the purines and uracil spared the PGA requirement by fifty fold and this was attained in 18 hours.

The amount of CF (expressed in terms of natural CF) required by each of the strains (Table II) under the same growth conditions as

TABLE II  
QUANTITATIVE GROWTH REQUIREMENTS FOR CITROVORUM FACTOR IN THREE MEDIA

S. faecalis	Amount of CF required for HMC my ml		
	F PP	F PP+T	F
O	0.8	0.75	0.3
A	4.0	5.0†	0.3
MP	0.75	0.75	0.2
MP/A	0.5	0.5	0.2

42 hours

† 70 hours

described for PGA showed that CF played a role similar to that of PGA in the growth of SF/O an observation first reported by Broquist *et al.* (4) and subsequently by many investigators. The response of SF/MP and SF MP/A to CF was essentially the same as to PGA except that a slightly lower amount of CF was required by SF/MP A in all media. SF/A responded to CF as it did to PGA except in the purine medium where less PGA was required.

Thymine or thymidine and a natural purine were first shown by Stokes (31) to replace completely the PCA requirement of SF/O. The quantitative requirements (Table III) of each in the F medium indicate that thymidine was a better growth factor for SF/O and SF MP/A and about equimolar amounts were required by the other two mutants. All the mutants required less of thymine or thymidine than the parent strain.

The sparing effect of purines on the PGA requirement of these bacteria suggested that some differences might occur in their growth response to some free purine bases such as adenine, guanine, xanthine, hypoxanthine, 6-mercaptopurine, 2,6-diaminopurine (2,6-DAP) and iso-guanine. The growth response on these purines in the F PP+PGA medium is shown in Table IV. There was little or no growth stimulation

resistance. Some resistant strains which do not produce penicillinase were found to bind more sulfur labeled penicillin than sensitive strains whereas in other cases there was less binding by resistant mutants and in others there was equal binding by the sensitive and resistant strains.

In our studies on drug resistance in bacteria some observations have been made on a number of postulated mechanisms for resistance. Data pertinent to the mechanisms of metabolite requirements alternate pathways of nucleic biosynthesis and enzyme activity will be considered. The bacteria used for these experiments were *S. faecalis* ATCC 8043 (SF/O) an amethopterin resistant mutant SF/A (9) a 6 MP resistant mutant SF/MP (22) and a mutant resistant to both 6-MP and amethopterin SF/MP/A. This double mutant was isolated from SF/MP by serial transfer in the F PP (free of purines and pyrimidines) + PGA medium (17) supplemented with amethopterin.

Presumably a mutant could become resistant to a drug such as amethopterin or 6 MP if it no longer required as much of a specific metabolite for example pteroylglutamic acid (PGA) or a natural purine as its sensitive parent strain. The inhibitory effect of the antimetabolite would not be so profound in this situation.

The quantitative growth requirements of four strains of *S. faecalis* for PGA were determined after 18 hours. The results are presented in Table I.

TABLE I  
QUANTITATIVE GROWTH REQUIREMENTS FOR PGA IN THREE MEDIA

<i>S. faecalis</i>	Amount of PGA required for HMG $\text{mg/ml}$		
	F PP	F PP + T	F
O	1.0	0.5	0.3
A	5.0	1.0†	0.1
MP	1.0	1.0	0.25
MP/A	1.0	1.0	0.3

42 hours

† 70 hours

The three media used were (1) F (Flynn *et al.* 17) (2) F PP (F medium without adenine, guanine, xanthine and uracil supplementation) and (3) F PP + T (F PP medium supplemented with 1  $\gamma$ /ml thymine). The amount of PGA required for half maximum growth (HMG) of SF/O was 1  $\text{mg/ml}$  in the F PP medium. Thymine supplementation of this medium decreased the PGA requirement to one half. A threefold sparing effect on PGA was observed when the medium was supplemented with purines and uracil. A similarity in quantitative PGA requirement

with these strains of *S. faecalis* show a number of quantitative differences in each organism in regard to its utilization of PGA CF thymine and purines and furthermore that different alterations occur in mutants resistant to the same drug. Conversely different changes occur in mutants resistant to the same drugs—for example the stimulatory effect of adenine on SF/A and the inhibitory effect of the same concentration of adenine on SF/MP/A or the inability of SF/MP to grow on adenine guanine and hypoxanthine and the converse in the case of SF/MP/A. A decrease in the amount of thymine required occurred in all three mutants the PGA response was mostly altered in SF/A and the CF response was altered most in SF/MP/A.

TABLE V  
GROWTH RESPONSE TO PURINES IN F PP+THYMINE MEDIUM

Supplements 0.3 mM	SF/O	SF/A	SF/MP	SF/MP/A
	O D			
None	0	0	0	0
Adenine	0.37	0.40	0	0
Guanine	0.30	0.34	0	0.34
Hypoxanthine	0.39	0.39	0	0.22
Xanthine	0.43	0.45	0.54	0.32
Isoguanine	0.15	0.12	0.13	0.11
2,6-DAP	0	0	0	0.10
6-MP	0.15	0.17	0.03	0.10

Growth at lower levels of adenine

PGA requirements in purine pyrimidine free (F PP) thymine supplemented (F PP+T) and purine pyrimidine supplemented (F) media suggested a marked dichotomy of the *de novo* and preformed pathways of nucleic acid biosynthesis. The alterations in these mutants served as a basis for collaborative studies with Dr. M. Earl Balis concerned with the utilization of labeled exogenous purines and the interconversion of these purines into purines of pentosenucleic acid (PNA). The growth phase of these "incorporation" experiments was such that the organism could use a purine per se or synthesize purine derivatives from small molecules through folic acid mediated reactions. The methods used are similar to those which have been described by Balis *et al.* (1) for *Escherichia coli*. SF/O used exogenous adenine and guanine for both PNA adenine and guanine adenine was a slightly better precursor (Table VI). The relative specific activity of the PNA adenine and guanine indicate that about equal synthesis was carried out by the *de*

of SF/O SF/MP or SF/MP/A by any of the purines. There was some inhibition of SF/O by 6 MP and 2.6 DAP. SF/A which did not grow in the F PP+PGA medium in 24 hours grew on all the purines except 2.6 DAP. The growth on 6 MP was about one half that obtained on the other purines.

TABLE III  
QUANTITATIVE GROWTH REQUIREMENTS FOR THYMINE AND THYMIDINE (F MEDIUM)

<i>S. faecalis</i>	Amounts required for HMG $\gamma$ /ml	
	Thymine	Thymidine
O	0.43	0.52
A	0.20	0.48
MP	0.15	0.40
MP/A	0.30	0.40

TABLE IV  
GROWTH RESPONSES TO PURINES IN F PP+PGA MEDIUM

Supplements 0.03 mM	SF/O	SF/A	SF/MP	SF/MP/A
	O.D.			
None	0.40	0	0.39	0.31
Adenine	0.47	0.40	0.41	0.37
Guanine	0.44	0.33	0.41	0.34
Hypoxanthine	0.42	0.33	0.38	0.40
Xanthine	0.47	0.30	0.49	0.41
Isoguanine	0.42	0.30	0.40	0.35
2.6-DAP	0	0	0.40	0.39
6-MP	0.30	0.18	0.40	0.34

The response of these bacteria to purine bases is more clearly delineated in the F PP + thymine medium since in this medium the baseline of a lack of growth in the absence of a purine is the same for all cultures (Table V). Adenine, guanine, hypoxanthine and xanthine were good purine sources for SF/O but 6 MP gave a slight growth response (the presence of traces of hypoxanthine could account for this growth) and isoguanine was also a poor purine source. SF/A was similar to the parent strain. SF/MP grew well on xanthine and slightly on isoguanine. The lack of growth on 6-MP is noteworthy. SF/MP/A was inhibited by the concentration of adenine used in these experiments; at one third the concentration the growth was comparable to that obtained on guanine. SF/MP/A grew with exogenous 6 MP or 2.6 DAP.

The myriad changes which have been observed in the growth studies

DAP as a purine source it is resistant to it. Despite these increases in resistance to purine analogs SF/MP/A was more sensitive to unsubstituted purine than any of the other organisms including the parent culture. The increased relative effectiveness of amethopterin on SF/A in the F PP+PGA medium further indicates the mutant's weakness in carrying out *de novo* synthesis while the other two mutants SF/MP and SF/MP/A were not markedly affected by the absence of natural purines; this is in agreement with the postulate that they have a slight preference for *de novo* synthesis.

TABLE VII  
GROWTH INHIBITION AND CROSS RESISTANCE

	F+PGA medium	F PP+PGA medium			
	amethopterin	Amethopterin	6-MP	2,6-DAP	Purine
<i>S. faecalis</i>	$\gamma$ /mL for 50% inhibition				
O	0.001	0.0005	10	3	20
A	300	60	1	25	20
MP	0.004	0.003	>500	30	20
MP/A	300	200	>500	200	10

The enzymatic formation of an increased amount of a specific metabolite such as CF capable of competing with amethopterin might be a process responsible for resistance in antifolates. The conversion of folic acid to CF *in vivo* as demonstrated by Bleiler *et al.* (2) Sauberlich (28) Broquist *et al.* (6) Girdwood (19) and others and *in vitro* by Nichol (25) Nichol and Welch (26) Broquist *et al.* (5) Hendlin *et al.* (21) Foley and Haley (18) and others suggested that CF might be the biologically active form of folic acid. Recent studies by Greenberg (20) Kisliuk and Sakami (24) Silverman and Keresztesy (30) Nichol *et al.* (27) and Bolinder *et al.* (3) suggest that CF may not be the active formulating factor in nature. CF may indeed be the heat stable form of the biologically active factor.

Resting cells of SF/A were shown (5, 23) to form more CF from PGA than did SF/O. When glucose supplementation of the resting cell mixture was studied (Table VIII) washed cells of SF/O had the same capacity to form CF as did SF/A. The enzymatic activity of SF/A cells was not appreciably affected by the presence of glucose.

Studies on enzyme activity have been done with *S. faecalis* strains relative to rates of CF formation. The conditions used in these resting cell experiments were those that were optimal for SF/O (Table IX).

*de novo* route in the presence of exogenous adenine or guanine SF/A incorporated more of each exogenously supplied purine into PNA adenine and guanine than did SF/O. This is in agreement with the stimulatory effect of adenine and guanine observed in the FPP+PGA medium growth studies. SF/A utilized exogenous purines to a greater extent than SF/O but the *de novo* route of nucleic acid synthesis is still very much in effect. SF/MP utilized exogenous adenine slightly for PNA adenine and exogenous guanine only poorly for PNA guanine and the interconversion was negligible. Since the growth of SF/MP in these experiments was comparable to that of the other two cultures it is

TABLE VI  
BIOSYNTHESIS OF PENTOSENUCLEIC ACID ADENINE AND GUANINE

<i>S. faecalis</i>	Exogenous adenine		Exogenous guanine	
	Relative specific activity of PNA			
	Adenine	Guanine	Adenine	Guanine
O	48	44	39	41
A	58	65	55	56
MP	19	4	1	12
MP/A	36	51	39	45

$$\text{* Relative specific activity} = \frac{\text{counts per minute per mole of isolated compound}}{\text{counts per minute per mole of added compound}} \times 100$$

reasonable to suggest that SF/MP is unable to use adenine and guanine for the biosynthesis of PNA purines. SF/MP/A was similar to the parent culture showing a slight preference for the *de novo* pathway.

Increased resistance to a drug regardless of the mechanism accompanied by a concurrent increase in sensitivity to another drug would be an ideal system for the chemotherapist. This phenomenon has been observed in antibiotic resistance in a number of bacterial studies (32) and in 6 MP and 26 DAP resistant *L. casei* (13, 14). The measurement of the comparative inhibitory effects of amethopterin, 26 DAP, 6 MP and unsubstituted purine on the strains of *S. faecalis* (Table VII) show that in SF/A resistance to amethopterin resulted in an increased sensitivity to 6 MP, an increased resistance to 26 DAP and no change for unsubstituted purine. Resistance to 6-MP in SF/MP was accompanied by a slight increase in resistance to amethopterin and 26 DAP with no change in respect to unsubstituted purine. SF/MP/A by its nature was resistant to 6-MP and amethopterin and since SF/MP/A can use 26

DAP as a purine source it is resistant to it. Despite these increases in resistance to purine analogs SF/MP/A was more sensitive to unsubstituted purine than any of the other organisms including the parent culture. The increased relative effectiveness of amethopterin on SF/A in the F PP+PGA medium further indicates the mutant's weakness in carrying out *de novo* synthesis while the other two mutants SF/MP and SF/MP/A were not markedly affected by the absence of natural purines; this is in agreement with the postulate that they have a slight preference for *de novo* synthesis.

TABLE VII  
GROWTH INHIBITION AND CROSS RESISTANCE

	F+PGA medium amethopterin	F PP+PGA medium			
	Amethopterin	Amethopterin	6-MH	2,6-DAI	Purine
<i>S. faecalis</i>	$\gamma$ /ml for 50% inhibition				
O	0.001	0.0005	10	3	20
A	300	60	1	25	20
MP	0.004	0.003	>500	30	20
MP/A	300	300	>500	300	10

The enzymatic formation of an increased amount of a specific metabolite such as CF capable of competing with amethopterin might be a process responsible for resistance in antifolates. The conversion of folic acid to CF *in vivo* as demonstrated by Blaxter *et al.* (2) Sauberlich (28) Broquist *et al.* (6) Girdwood (19) and others and *in vitro* by Nichol (25) Nichol and Welch (26) Broquist *et al.* (5) Hendlin *et al.* (21) Foley and Haley (18) and others suggested that CF might be the biologically active form of folic acid. Recent studies by Greenberg (20) Kisluk and Sakami (24) Silverman and Keresztes (30) Nichol *et al.* (27) and Bolinder *et al.* (3) suggest that CF may not be the active formylating factor in nature. CF may indeed be the heat stable form of the biologically active factor.

Resting cells of SF/A were shown (5, 23) to form more CF from PGA than did SF/O. When glucose supplementation of the resting cell mixture was studied (Table VIII) washed cells of SF/O had the same capacity to form CF as did SF/A. The enzymatic activity of SF/A cells was not appreciably affected by the presence of glucose.

Studies on enzyme activity have been done with *S. faecalis* strains relative to rates of CF formation. The conditions used in these resting cell experiments were those that were optimal for SF/O (Table IX).

*de novo* route in the presence of exogenous adenine or guanine SF/A incorporated more of each exogenously supplied purine into PNA adenine and guanine than did SF/O. This is in agreement with the stimulatory effect of adenine and guanine observed in the FPP+PGA medium growth studies. SF/A utilized exogenous purines to a greater extent than SF/O but the *de novo* route of nucleic acid synthesis is still very much in effect. SF/MP utilized exogenous adenine slightly for PNA adenine and exogenous guanine only poorly for PNA guanine and the interconversion was negligible. Since the growth of SF/MP in these experiments was comparable to that of the other two cultures it is

TABLE VI  
BIOSYNTHESIS OF PENTOSENUCLEIC ACID ADENINE AND GUANINE

<i>S. faecalis</i>	Exogenous adenine		Exogenous guanine	
	Relative specific activity of PNA			
	Adenine	Guanine	Adenine	Guanine
O	48	44	39	41
A	58	65	55	56
MP	19	4	1	12
MP/A	36	51	39	45

$$\text{* Relative specific activity} = \frac{\text{counts per minute per mole of isolated compound}}{\text{counts per minute per mole of added compound}} \times 100$$

reasonable to suggest that SF/MP is unable to use adenine and guanine for the biosynthesis of PNA purines. SF/MP/A was similar to the parent culture showing a slight preference for the *de novo* pathway.

Increased resistance to a drug regardless of the mechanism accompanied by a concurrent increase in sensitivity to another drug would be an ideal system for the chemotherapist. This phenomenon has been observed in antibiotic resistance in a number of bacterial studies (32) and in 6 MP and 26 DAP resistant *L. casei* (13-14). The measurement of the comparative inhibitory effects of amethopterin, 26 DAP, 6 MP and unsubstituted purine on the strains of *S. faecalis* (Table VII) show that in SF/A resistance to amethopterin resulted in an increased sensitivity to 6 MP, an increased resistance to 26 DAP and no change for unsubstituted purine. Resistance to 6 MP in SF/MP was accompanied by a slight increase in resistance to amethopterin and 26 DAP with no change in respect to unsubstituted purine. SF/MP/A by its nature was resistant to 6 MP and amethopterin and since SF/MP/A can use 26



enzyme system as that which results from resistance to amethopterin. Further studies show that the amounts of enzyme(s) produced by SF/A are considerably greater than those produced by SF/O. For example by increasing the substrate concentration of PGA twenty five times there was less than a twofold increase in CF production by SF/O whereas in the same type of experiment SF/A formed about two hundred times as much CF.

### Summary

Among these three resistant strains of *S. faecalis* a number of quantitative changes have been observed. Unfortunately not one is strictly characteristic for a specific mutant. Resistance to amethopterin has resulted in a population that is less able to carry out nucleic acid synthesis *de novo* and is less able to use CF than PGA but has an increased capacity for the enzymatic formation of CF. It is not surprising that SF/A has the ability to form more CF since it is less efficient in the use of CF. Perhaps this shift in metabolism tends to compensate for the inefficiency.

Resistance to 6-MP has resulted in a population that is unable to use purines with the exception of xanthine and isoguanine for nucleic acid synthesis. The capacity for *de novo* biosynthesis of purines is much more efficient than in the parent strain. The mutant uses PGA and CF to the same extent and is similar to the amethopterin resistant mutant in respect to the enzymatic formation of CF.

The double mutant, SF/MP/A which has the same degree of resistance to 6-MP and amethopterin as the two single mutants quantitatively follows the same pattern as the parent strain (SF/O) in regard to the utilization of exogenously supplied natural purines. The growth response to PGA is similar to the parent strain but CF is twice as active as a growth factor. The enzymatic formation of CF by SF/MP/A is both more rapid and more efficient than that of any of the strains.

Not one of the mutants uses exogenous thymine preferentially to the *de novo* synthesis of nucleic acids. With SF/O thymine produces a definite sparing effect on the amount of PGA required.

The increased sensitivity of SF/A to 6-MP associated with an increased resistance to 2,6-DAP and no change in response to unsubstituted purine is consistent with the observations (12,15) that these three purine derivatives have different modes of action and shows that even though a mutant has a decreased ability to carry out *de novo* synthesis of purines it is not uniformly more sensitive to several purine analogs. The increased resistance of SF/MP to amethopterin with an apparent increase

SF/O formed almost as much CF as SF/A in the 2 hour incubation period but SF/A formed CF at a considerably greater rate. CF formation of SF/MP was of the same order of magnitude as CF formation of the other two strains. The peak production was reached in the first 20 minutes and after a short plateau period this was followed in time by an

TABLE VIII

## EFFECT OF GLUCOSE ON CITROVORUM FACTOR FORMATION

(Each beaker contained a total of 5 ml including 5 mg of cells 5 mg of ascorbic acid 5.2 mg of serine 1  $\gamma$  of PGA pH 6.5 phosphate buffer and glucose as indicated. Incubation at 37° in a Dubnoff incubator.)

Time minutes	Glucose 9 mg	Total (m $\gamma$ ) natural CF formed by	
		SF/O	SF/A
15	—	3	105
15	+	4	168
30	—	3	89
30	+	7	141
120	—	7	106
120	+	160	96

TABLE IX

## EFFECT OF TIME ON THE FORMATION OF CITROVORUM FACTOR

(Each beaker contained a total of 5 ml including 5 mg of cells 5 mg of ascorbic acid 5.2 mg of serine 9.0 mg of glucose pH 6.5 phosphate buffer and PGA as indicated. Incubation at 37° in a Dubnoff incubator.)

Time minutes	PGA 1 $\gamma$	Total (m $\gamma$ ) natural CF formed by			
		SF/O	SF/A	SF/MP	SF/MP/A
0	+	3	36	3	12
10	+	9	81	72	340
20	+	21	85	126	373
30	+	38	110	105	288
60	+	66	109	99	137
120	+	151	162	84	98
120	—	<2	<2	<2	<2

apparent gradual decreased formation of the factor SF/MP/A has characteristics of both SF/MP and SF/A—rapid and very efficient conversion of PGA to CF followed by a decreased formation of the factor after 30 minutes.

The results on the formation of CF by the *S. faecalis* strains suggest that the resistance to 6 MP imparts a similar effect on the CF forming

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## General Discussion

DR ROBERT CUTTIE (Buffalo New York) I should like to mention some results which I think will be of concern to anyone who is interested in unusual sensitivity that accompanies resistance to antimetabolites. Both of the last papers have mentioned examples where resistance to amethopterin results in increased sensitivity to purine antagonists. At Roswell Park Memorial Institute recently we have used this principle in an attempt to find some interesting agents to put to test as aptamors or agents. Specifically we have isolated a number of mutants of *Bacillus subtilis* that are resistant to amethopterin and a number of mutants of *Escherichia coli* that are resistant to 6-mercapto-purine. The results so far have been very encouraging in indicating the usefulness of collateral sensitivity (increased sensitivity to a tested drug accompanying increased resistance to another agent) as a method of finding new useful agents. Out of approximately eighty various substituted purine and pyrimidine analogs including the metabolites as well as a number that we could get from other laboratories subjected to both types of this collateral sensitivity screening we found

in *de novo* synthesis indicates that amethopterin resistance is not necessarily associated with an increased requirement for exogenous purines

Resistance to both 6-MP and amethopterin appears to have canceled out the changes of the single mutants in regard to synthesis *de novo* and the utilization of exogenous purines which indicates that some other mechanisms may be responsible for the resistance

The results to date on clinical evaluation of the effect of amethopterin on 6 MP resistant leukemias and the effect of 6 MP on amethopterin resistant leukemias showed approximately the same percentage of response in each series as was seen in a previously untreated series of patients (7)

It would be unwise to assume that drug resistance in several mutants will result in the same metabolic alterations. The various changes in three drug resistant mutants of *S. faecalis* show that a unique route to resistance does not exist. Thus the study of the effect of new drugs on bacterial mutants may not lead to a simple solution of the problem of resistance in chemotherapy. Drug resistant mutants supply systems that are extremely useful for the elucidation of the multiplicity of processes responsible for cell growth and as such will provide information which will aid in the eventual solution of the problem of resistance to chemotherapeutic agents

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**Part IX**

**Round Table Discussion on Therapy  
Present Status of New Clinical Agents and Combinations in  
*Treatment of the Leukemias***

**Chairman**

**Frank H. Bethell**

The Thomas Henry Simpson Memorial Institute for Medical Research  
University of Michigan  
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**Panel**

**Joseph H. Burchenal**

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and Allied Disease  
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**William Dameshek**

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**Charles A. Doan**

Ohio State University  
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**Sidney Farber**

The Children's Hospital  
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**Alfred Gellhorn**

Columbia University College  
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**Joseph M. Hill**

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**Maxwell M. Wintrobe**

University of Utah  
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only two cases of definitive collateral sensitivity. The first was that of a very large increase in sensitivity to amethopterin accompanying 6-mercaptopurine resistance in one mutant. The other case was a very definite increase in sensitivity to analogs of the pyrimidine moiety of thiamine accompanying amethopterin resistance. This has since been extended to five other analogs of the pyrimidine moiety of vitamin B<sub>1</sub>. They all show an unusual ability to inhibit amethopterin resistant mutants of *Bacillus subtilis*.

Further Dr Loebeck in the last two or three months has tested approximately 150 additional purine and pyrimidine analogs and related compounds with two particular mutants, one of which is an *E. coli* mutant resistant to 6-mercaptopurine and the other is triply resistant to 6-mercaptopurine, 6-thioguanine and 8-azaguanine. In the second mutant she has found definite collateral sensitivity only in the case of the same antagonists of the vitamin B<sub>1</sub> pyrimidine moiety. As a consequence of these findings Dr Holland and I tested one of these antagonists, 2-methylmercapto-4-amino-5-hydroxymethylpyrimidine in mice and found significant ability to inhibit three different types of tumors. At the present time he is investigating the toxicity of this latter compound in dogs. What I wish to emphasize is not that we may have perhaps found something of great significance in cancer, but that the phenomenon of collateral sensitivity appears to be as specific as the converse phenomenon of cross resistance. Of 245 purine and pyrimidine analogs that we have tested so far we have found collateral sensitivity accompanying either 6-mercaptopurine resistance or amethopterin resistance for only two classes of compounds. I think this indicates that there is a possibility that new metabolic relationships may be uncovered by a further investigation of this phenomenon.

DR GEORGE J. FRUHMANN (New York, New York). I am unfamiliar with resistance in the leukemia animal and I should like to pose an open question concerning the leukemic animal receiving antimetabolite therapy and then later revealing resistance in the leukemic cells to the antimetabolite. In these animals do the normal cell constituents of the bone marrow, gastrointestinal tract and so on, also reveal the resistance and if so, is it to the same degree?

DR CHARLES A. NICHOL (New Haven, Connecticut). In relation to the question asked regarding resistance occurring in other cells, there is rather good evidence that resistance is confined to the leukemic cell because of the manner in which these cells retain this characteristic upon repeated transfer. This technique cannot be applied to the other cells which were concerned in this question, but I believe one example may be cited in which cells of the intestinal epithelium became refractory to inhibition of respiration by the folic acid antagonists. It may be possible that resistance can occur in other cells.

In most of these resistant sublines of leukemia in mice, a selective process involving a number of transfers achieves a high degree of resistance. Whether or not a selective process applies in the case of human patients who become refractory to treatment with these drugs is a question that is technically difficult to answer.

## Round Table Discussion on Therapy

DR FRANK H. BETHELL, Chairman This evening's round table session has the title "Present Status of New Chemical Agents and Combinations in Treatment of the Leukemias." May I ask your indulgence for a few introductory remarks.

In taking up the subject of the therapy of the leukemias especially the acute forms it is unavoidable that we depart to a limited extent from the spirit of complete objectivity that has until now characterized this meeting. The attitude of the physician one might say his personal moral philosophy may determine both the form of therapy employed and the energy with which it is pursued.

There are those who take a negative position some of them leaders in the profession and distinguished in other fields of medical research. Faced with a case of acute leukemia these physicians follow a program which may be characterized by the terms commiseration palliation, and defeatism. I respect their feelings and their motives but I do not agree with them.

I believe the members of this panel are positivists. One can of course be too aggressive but I know that my colleagues on this platform as well as all other physicians with whom I am acquainted who have such responsibilities are governed by the cardinal rule of the doctor. Let your treatment do no harm.

We plan to divide this discussion into two major parts. The first portion deals with Dr. Wintrobe's initial presentation on the criteria for evaluation of results in the therapy of leukemia. In dealing with different series of cases of leukemia it is not always possible to apply the criterion of a 50% survival in 30 days or 30 weeks or 30 months. We do not always know on what basis the physicians chose the particular patients who were to receive a certain form of treatment.

Dr. Wintrobe will try to put us on as common a ground as possible in this very difficult field. We shall then proceed to a consideration of those leukemias which are generally included in the acute group. "Acute" of course is a misnomer because some patients with acute leukemia live longer than do most with chronic leukemia but I think the members of this audience know what we refer to when we talk about "acute" leukemia.





Everyone who has seen many cases of acute leukemia will recognize the fact that the cases vary greatly from one to the other in the rate at which they progress. Some seem to move on very rapidly in spite of everything we try to do even with the newest and best therapeutic agents. Others I suspect take a languid course regardless of what we do.

These differences in the cases must be considered in evaluating results. Everyone is familiar too with the fact that "spontaneous" remissions occur in a small proportion of cases. These seem to occur more often in children than in adults. What is their significance? What is their cause? What role do they play in our interpretation of end results?

Everyone I believe will admit that there is a great deal of variation in the responsiveness of children as compared with that of adults. I like the Chairman do not consider that there is any hard and fast line at age 13 but that there is a difference in the responsiveness of children one cannot deny. What is the reason for that difference? I do not know the reason but it is something we need to give a great deal of attention to if we wish to evaluate our results.

I think we should consider the possibility that we may confuse ourselves if we observe the effects of a therapeutic agent in all acute leukemias and do not attempt to differentiate them according to type and perhaps also in relation to other factors. If we take the average of all the results our data will be less valuable than they would be if we discriminated between the cases in so far as we are able.

This is very difficult to do. I certainly am very ready to admit this fact, but I wish to call attention to the need for differentiation. In particular I think it is most important that we not assume that all acute leukemias are one and the same.

Dr. Law and other speakers as well pointed out differences in leukemia in animals in regard to mouse leukemia. Likewise in human leukemia there seem to be differences in the course and in the effectiveness of therapy in various types of leukemia—lymphoblastic myeloblastic monocytic.

Just a word also about the evaluation of results. If one attempts to survey the literature and the reported results of therapy one is greatly disturbed by the difficulty of comparing one person's results with those of another. There are various reasons for this. Most important among these are differences in the criteria which have been used in reaching conclusions concerning the effects of therapy.

Some evaluate therapy on the basis of morbidity—whether or not a

It has seemed advisable to have the initial part of the discussion deal with the recognized acute forms of leukemia especially as leukemia pertains to children and to young adults. Personally I feel that there is no sharp dividing line at the age of 13 or 14 years. Then we shall take up the problem of dealing with chronic leukemias with emphasis on forms of therapy which have become more recently available. We shall invite general discussions after the group of presentations concerned with acute leukemia and again when the chronic leukemias have been dealt with. On the other hand we want this to be a give and take affair and if anyone has a point to make or an issue to bring into consideration or a differing opinion perhaps it would be better done immediately rather than to wait until later.

I shall now introduce the members of the panel. I am sure all of them are known to everyone here. At my extreme right is Dr. Max Wintrobe. On his left in order are Dr. Alfred Gellhorn, Dr. Joseph Hill and Dr. Sven Moeschlin. At my left are Dr. William Dameshek, Dr. Sidney Farber, Dr. Joseph Burchenal and Dr. Charles Doan.

The opening discussion will be by Dr. Wintrobe on the subject of criteria for evaluation of response to therapeutic agents in leukemia.

**DR. MAXWELL M. WINTROBE:** I think that those who followed the papers closely yesterday and who thought of their possible application to clinical medicine must have given a good deal of thought to the question of the kind of material we deal with. In my remarks I should like to focus attention on two topics—the material with which we deal and the evaluation of the results of therapy.

I would differ a little with Dr. Bethell's opening remarks although I am sure that I do not differ with his meaning, namely that even in the treatment of patients with leukemia objectivity is necessary and is becoming all the more essential. One of our difficulties in the study of the use of therapeutic agents in the leukemias has been a certain lack of objectivity which we must correct if we wish to make any headway.

First of all regarding the material with which we deal. In regard to the chronic leukemias we may ask whether the material is homogeneous. By and large cases of chronic myelocytic leukemia are pretty much the same. The material is fairly homogeneous. Cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia on the other hand are less homogeneous. There is more variation than in the case of chronic myelocytic leukemia in the natural course of the disease, its rate of development, its rate of progress.

Among the acute leukemias there is the possibility of a great deal of confusion and mistaken judgment because the material varies so much.

DR SIDNEY FARBER (Boston Massachusetts) We began on January 1 1947 with a program to search for agents chemicals antibiotics hormones and biological materials which might affect the course of acute leukemia in children particularly as well as other forms of cancer We have tried from the very beginning to lay down firm objective criteria to be used in evaluating response These terms have been defined as rigidly as possible We are fully aware that within the framework of the term "total care" clinical investigation of new agents has very definite restrictions If these are kept in mind I think that objectivity can be obtained within the limits imposed by this kind of study on man

I offer no apology for the fact that this study has been carried out without as objective criteria as are permitted in studies on the mouse or any laboratory animal

Just in passing I should like to comment on Dr Wintrobe's excellent introduction I should like to suggest that although we should strive always for very strict evaluation by all the objective methods of clinical investigation when an antileukemic agent is found which is truly curative the patient will give us the answer and we will not have to worry about 2 weeks or 4 weeks or the date of onset or minor differences which might occur from study to study

The Chairman has asked me to make a brief comparison of the antipurines and the antifolates I might say that aminopterin and Methotrexate the two antifolates in most common use and 6-mercaptopurine (Purinethol) and thioguanine the antipurines which have been most used are all effective antileukemic agents which work for short periods of time (to be defined in a moment) each producing a complete remission in about 35% of the cases in about 25% more important partial remission in another 20% producing something less than partial remission and in another 20% causing no effect at all on the leukemic process or on the welfare of the patient

That in brief would summarize the two kinds of agents—the antifolates working usually in about 21 days plus or minus 5 days and the antipurines usually working in about 42 days plus or minus 10 days

There is some variation The remissions with the antifolates last on an average 8 months those with the antipurines a little less than that (somewhere around 6 months in our experience) Both agents are toxic Neither kind of agent need be productive of toxicity if rules of good care of patients are observed if the dose in each case is calculated for the individual patient and if the patient is observed constantly

I shall give a summary of our experience with 549 unselected con

remission has been achieved how many remissions have been achieved. The definition of the term "remission" varies a great deal in the literature. Others adopt the total survival of the patient as the measure of effectiveness. Even survival however is difficult to evaluate. Where does one begin? At the time of the onset of disease? It is very difficult to know when leukemia begins. At the time of the first symptom or the time of the first diagnosis? That too is open to considerable error. It depends in part on the perspicacity of the patient and of the physician and on his ability as a physician.

Should one consider survival from the beginning of therapy? That has its objections. Then we must remember that the effectiveness of therapy may be interrupted by an intercurrent infection which has not been taken care of successfully or by the occurrence of a hemorrhage which may have brought about an abrupt ending.

All these factors need to be evaluated in addition to the question of what we consider to be a response. What is response? There is a great deal of variation in the literature in the definition of that term. Some are willing to accept rather minor differences and call them responses. Others wish to have the patient so well that one cannot recognize the disease any more at that point. This too needs definition.

Again if one combs the literature one sees often that there is selection of material. Instead of the data being reported against the author's total experience material is selected. Is it selected in favor of the agent being described? Or is it selected because unconsciously the other way? One does not know. It is difficult for anyone to evaluate much of the material that has been published.

These are some of the considerations that I think we need to have in mind in discussing the results of chemotherapy or other forms of therapy in the leukemias.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. I certainly agree with what Dr. Wintrobe has said. I believe it is highly desirable that each individual's experience be controlled by himself by comparable experience with some other type of treatment. It has been extremely difficult to compare one's results directly with those of another individual although I believe that collective experiences under uniform conditions of selection and reporting may to a large extent obviate these difficulties.

Dr. Farber as everyone here knows has had a very early and very wide experience in the treatment of leukemic children with chemical agents. I shall ask him to speak next.

that leukemia may not be a single entity. On the other hand it may be that we go too far if we think of it as many different pathologic processes. I believe that perhaps with the exception of the chronic lymphocytic form the various types of leukemia are fairly closely related. One argument in support of this concept seems to me to be provided by the observations of Dr. Lloyd Law relative to the number of morphologic variants of mouse leukemia that may be produced with the same agents and under more or less the same conditions. It would appear that we are dealing with a variety of host relationships to possibly a number of physiologic situations or exogenous agents and certainly the biochemical reactions as well as the morphologic appearances which are associated with these relationships differ. Nevertheless a common and unifying factor in leukemia is not excluded by these considerations nor does variability in responsiveness or resistance to therapy necessarily indicate fundamental differences in the nature of these disorders.

We shall take up next the subject of combination therapy. Dr. Burchenal will talk on the treatment of acute leukemia in children with a combination of azaserine and 6-mercaptopurine. Combination therapy can be applied to a variety of agents and sometimes quite unrelated and perhaps irrational mixtures may result. I think that if we are going to progress by the use of combination therapy we should have some idea why an agent might be of value when given in combination with another and that's what Dr. Burchenal is going to tell us about.

DR. JOSEPH H. BURCHENAL. I think we would all agree with Dr. Farber that the resistance to these various chemotherapeutic agents is of extreme importance. We have felt for a long time that the remissions which are obtained in acute leukemia in childhood with 6-mercaptopurine leave much to be desired. They are too short and resistance develops all too rapidly—somewhat more rapidly in fact than with the folic acid antagonists. For that reason we have been very interested in any forms of combination therapy which might increase the length of these remissions and thus in turn enhance the practical value of 6-mercaptopurine. From the theoretical point of view as suggested by Potter (3) we have been particularly interested in any combination of agents which might cause sequential blocking of the same metabolic pathway at different levels. Clarke *et al* (1) using sarcoma 180 in mice as the test system have studied 6-mercaptopurine in combination with various other compounds. They have shown that quarter doses of 6-mercaptopurine and quarter doses of azaserine (*o*-diazoacetyl l-serine) given together are more effective in inhibiting the growth of sarcoma

secutive patients admitted between January 1 1947 and November 15 1955 The survival in all cases was calculated as of February 15 1956 Nine months is the 50% survival for the series as a whole In the period which included the antifolates and ACTH and cortisone 50% of 343 patients were alive at 8 months For the following period when in addition to the antifolates and ACTH and cortisone we had 6 mercaptopurine 50% of the 209 patients survived for 11 4 months

The 10% survival figures are very striking In the first period prior to the use of 6 mercaptopurine it was 17½ months For the entire series including those who died 1 hour after admission as well as those in whom there was sufficient time to attempt to obtain a remission the 10% survival period was 21 1 months Finally in the group seen since 6 mercaptopurine became available the 10% survival period was 29 8 months

Of 116 patients who were admitted after the introduction of 6 mercaptopurine but prior to August 1 1954 there was a 50% survival of 9 9 months For the group admitted between August 1 1954 and November 15 1955 when no new agents of any consequence were introduced the 50% survival period had increased to 14 5 months

*I think it is fair to say that during this recent period we have increased total care we have used blood rich in platelets frozen platelets and platelet concentrates in the treatment and prevention of hemorrhage we have used more effective methods against infections and there have been other improvements in what we would call "total care" I think what we are looking at here is a result which has been obtained by total care which goes beyond the actual effectiveness of the therapeutic compounds themselves*

One problem here could be brought up by all of us that of the phenomenon of resistance So far every agent that we have had has met resistance in all patients except one Why this one child who has now survived for 6 years and 7 months did not develop resistance to Methotrexate whereas all the others became resistant is a problem which if solved will make the agents we are using presently very much more effective We have suggested for many years as has Dr Wintrobe to night that when the final story is told it probably will be shown that we are dealing with several different diseases under the term "acute leukemia" We shall eventually differentiate these biochemically rather than morphologically as we are trying to do at the present time

CHAIRMAN BETHELL Thank you Dr Farber I have only one comment to make I believe it has been a very salutary thing to emphasize

Presumably azaserine acts to interfere with the amination of this compound by glutamine to form the 4 aminoimidazole ribotide. Mercaptopurine on the other hand works at a considerably higher level of this same metabolic pathway to block the conversion of hypoxanthine ribotide into the polynucleotide purines.

Azaserine alone has no practical value in the treatment of acute leukemia in either children or adults. It is true that we have seen two partial remissions in previously untreated children given azaserine with the leukemic cells in the bone marrow decreasing to 70%. Even these very partial remissions were transient, however lasting only 3 or 4 weeks and relapsing despite continued therapy. When mercaptopurine and azaserine are given in combination the dose is generally 2.5 mg of mercaptopurine and 2.5 mg of azaserine per kilogram. At this dosage most children will develop some mild degree of redness of the tongue, ulcerations of the tongue and buccal mucosa and in some it may be necessary to cut the dose of the azaserine component in half.

Figure 2 shows the course of a child treated with this combination and it is apparent that the dose of azaserine had to be interrupted for 2 or 3 days many times along the line and then continued at a slightly lower dose. Generally speaking however the mercaptopurine component could be continued at the starting dose throughout therapy. We have treated many patients with various types of neoplastic disease with this combination but I should like to discuss with you the responses of a group of twenty nine children with previously untreated leukemia that have been treated with this combination. These were selected cases most of them not very acutely ill and this must be borne in mind when evaluating the statistics. Of this group there were six failures, three partial remissions and twenty complete remissions according to the definition of remission in acute leukemia of the Clinical Studies Panel of the Cancer Chemotherapy National Service Center. Of these twenty patients with complete remissions, three have been under treatment with this particular combination for 15, 18 and 22 months respectively and the average length of time in remission for the whole group was 5.8 months. This is the actual time that they were in remission which is naturally considerably less than the total time they were under treatment. This length of remission is approximately 2 months longer than the average we have been able to obtain with mercaptopurine. For this reason these results would suggest that when mercaptopurine is given to children with acute leukemia there would be an advantage in the simultaneous administration of azaserine. The control data on

180 than full doses of either compound alone. For this reason we have studied a combination of these two drugs in patients with acute leukemia.

The theory behind this is shown in Fig. 1 which depicts the *de novo*

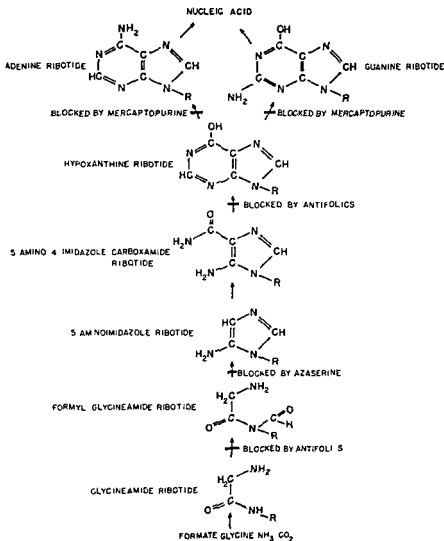


FIG. 1

synthesis of nucleic acids from small building blocks such as formate, glycine, ammonia, and CO. Both Hartman *et al.* (2) and Skipper (personal communication) have shown that the addition of azaserine to such a system causes a pile up of formyl glycineamide ribotide in the medium.



mercaptopurine are not completely satisfactory at present, however and for that reason a cooperative study has been set up with several other groups throughout the country to evaluate on a randomized alternate case system mercaptopurine and azaserine versus mercaptopurine alone in previously untreated acute leukemias in children. It is hoped that in a year from now it will be possible to state with confidence that this combination is superior to mercaptopurine alone.

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**CHAIRMAN BETHELL.** I suppose that 99% of patients who receive a diagnosis of acute leukemia are treated with either ACTH or one of the corticosteroids. As Dr. Burchenal stated in centers where chemotherapy is under evaluation patients who are not considered satisfactory for so-called drug treatment ordinarily receive one of these hormones and yet I do not believe we should relegate endocrine therapy to a last resort or to the status of mere palliation.

What do these agents actually accomplish? Are there advantages in using unusually large doses? Dr. Joseph Hill probably was the first to employ high dosage corticosteroid therapy in the treatment of acute leukemia. Dr. Alfred Gellhorn also has had quite a wide experience in this field. We shall hear from Dr. Gellhorn later. Now I should like to call on Dr. Hill.

**DR. JOSEPH M. HILL.** In assessing the effects of massive steroid therapy I should like to consider this treatment against the background of our results in 121 cases of acute leukemia. I should like to call your attention to the remission rate in two divisions containing approximately equal numbers of cases: first those which had available as therapy anti-folates, ACTH, and cortisone, and second those which had mercaptopurine, azaserine, and massive steroids.

Survival time has increased greatly with an increase in the overall figure from 12% in the first period to 42% surviving beyond 12 months in the second period. The remission rate at the same time increased from 44% to 83%. Only complete or good partial remissions based on laboratory findings were included.

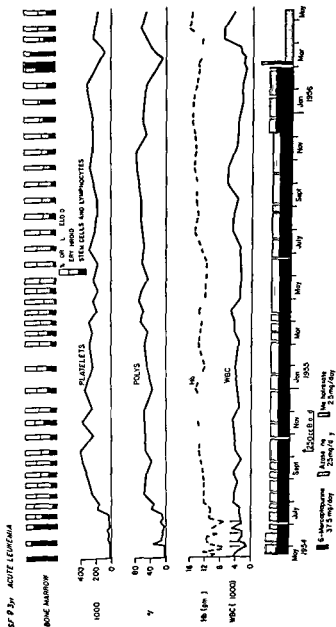


FIG. 2

however to three monocytic leukemias two shown in the table and one observed since then. Two complete remissions and one partial remission were obtained. One of these was a lady 81 years old and the other two were also adults.

TABLE II

RESULT OF TREATMENT ON PATIENTS RECEIVING PREDNISONE AND PREDNISOLONE

Type of leukemia	Failure	Partial remission	Complete remission	Total
Acute granulocytic	AN ♂ 35 †	FH ♂ 47	TR ♂ 62	10
	CG ♂ 69	JS ♂ 17	RS ♂ 8	
	ER 41 †	EG ♀ 22 †		
		EB ♂ 51		
Acute lymphocytic	KL ♀ 43	JE ♂ 4a	JG ♂ 12 †	11
	JM ♀ 20		KB ♀ 3	
	SH ♂ 30 †		JM ♂ 12	
			CH ♂ 1	
			ER ♂ 26 †	
			MG ♂ 11	
			ME ♂ 8	
Acute monocytic		MH ♀ 81 †	AH ♀ 34	2
TOTAL	6	6	11	23

Leukemia previously not treated

† Steroid only specific chemotherapy

A few brief additional cases may be of interest. Prednisolone was given in doses of 3 g daily in a case of acute monocytic leukemia and a complete remission was obtained. Initially the bone marrow of this patient was rather hypoplastic containing cells that might be termed monoblasts or monocytic reticular cells. Two weeks later the bone marrow was regenerating with normal cells.

As an example of mixed therapy an initial remission was obtained in this case with 3 g daily of hydrocortisone. This woman was 4½ months pregnant and it was very desirable to try to get her into remission and to use as little of the antimetabolites as possible for fear of adverse effect on the pregnancy. There was an abrupt rise in the platelets coincident with the completion of therapy with the massive doses of steroid. At this time amethopterin was started and the dosage was kept as low as possible. A little later mercaptopurine was

When we first undertook this work we tried hydrocortisone therapy in a few cases giving up to about 3 g/day and then 9  $\alpha$  fluorohydrocortisone a much more potent compound became available and this was used. In Table I is summarized our somewhat earlier experience

TABLE I  
RESULT OF TREATMENT ON PATIENTS RECEIVING MORE THAN 250 MG OF  
9  $\alpha$  FLUOROHYDROCORTISONE (18 CASES)

Type of leukemia	Failure	Partial remission	Complete remission	Total
Acute myeloblastic	FW ♂ 24	RB ♂ 2	DJ ♀ 14 †	11
	LF ♀ 47	DP ♀ 66	JF ♂ 33	
	JS ♂ 45	JG ♀ 40	JS ♂ 17 †	
			SW ♂ 45 †	
			ZE ♀ 20 †	
Acute lymphoblastic	SJ ♀ 7	JR ♀ 7	JS ♂ 7	6
	KL ♀ 4 <sup>1</sup>	Terminal phase	BV ♂ 2	
			RL ♂ 17	
Plasma cell			FR ♀ 66 †	1
TOTAL	5	4	9	18

Leukemia previously not treated

† FHC only specific chemotherapy

with this compound. You see that a fairly good remission rate was obtained. In this particular group we had the division into failure, partial remission and complete remission as shown. Among the patients in this group were a larger number of cases of acute granulocytic leukemia than usual. In the case of the rather rare plasma cell leukemia there was a most gratifying response to the 9  $\alpha$  fluorohydrocortisone with the clearing of the plasma cells from the peripheral blood and from the bone marrow in approximately 9 days time. The patient had a remission of about 2 months and thereafter nothing was of any avail. In this case we gave doses up to 200 mg/day of 9  $\alpha$  fluorohydrocortisone which has a potency twenty five times that of hydrocortisone.

Sometimes a remission can be obtained with exceeding rapidity after fluorohydrocortisone in massive doses. In one such instance 200 mg/day was given and at the end of 3 days the blasts were cleared from the peripheral blood and reduced in the bone marrow below 10% in 9 days.

The series treated with prednisone and prednisolone (Table II) contained more lymphocytic than granulocytic cases. Attention is called

TABLE III  
SIDE EFFECTS AFTER TREATMENT WITH IUDONALONE AND IUDONALONE

Name age sex	Abnormal K	N <sup>4</sup>	Blood sugar L-100 Over 100	Blood pressure mm.			Psychosis depression ephoric	Weight gain over 5 lb	Excessive weakness or low blood pressure on withdrawal
				Systolic	Diastolic	Over 10			
NM 51 F		L	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes
MM 80 F	L		Yes					-	Yes
TR 6- M			Yes				-		-
SH 30 M			Yes				Yes		-
EB 52 M	L		Yes					Yes	
PH 47 M				-	-	-			
CH 44 M		-		-	-	-		Yes	
AN 33 M	H		Yes	-	-	-		Yes	
OS 46 M			Yes	-	-	-		Yes	
RH 44 M	H		Yes					Yes	Yes
OH 34 F	-	-		Yes		Yes		Yes	
NM 74 M				Yes		Yes		Yes	
BS 53 F		-	-			Yes		Yes	
ER 41 M		L		Yes		Yes		Yes	
TS 72 M								Yes	
CV 50 M								-	
CG 70 M			Yes						
Total	4	2	3	7	1	3	0	4	2
								6	3

L = below normal range H = above normal range - = not determined blank space = normal values

also employed. Again small doses of prednisone were given and finally some massive doses of prednisone were used. The pregnancy was successfully completed and a healthy baby was obtained but the mother died of a ruptured spleen 6 weeks after delivery.

The chief adverse effect of fluorohydrocortisone is loss of potassium requiring doses as high as 100 to 110 meq of potassium a day to maintain balance. With adequate potassium and low sodium diet normal sodium and potassium levels in the blood have been maintained however. There was one case of psychosis in the fluorohydrocortisone series that was quickly reversible.

Table III summarizes some of the side effects with prednisone and prednisolone. In this series there was relatively little difficulty with sodium and potassium although there was some deviation from normal levels because the patients were not watched as closely as in the other series. The blood sugar rose in a great many cases but in no instance was hyperglycemia a contraindication to the use of the drug and we did not discontinue it for that purpose. There was some effect on elevation of blood pressure in no instance requiring discontinuance of the drug. Psychoses occurred in two cases in one of which convulsant therapy was required. The patient is now doing well and is having a fine remission. Weight gain due to retention of water presented some difficulty. By and large however this was not a serious problem. The patients were watched carefully and the steroid was discontinued or the dosage lowered for a while if necessary. Weakness on withdrawal of the drug was something of a problem with more difficulty in older patients. We followed the policy of tapering off the drug and giving increasing and then decreasing doses of ACTH.

The cytolytic effect of the therapy on the leukemic cells and the rapidity with which it can occur with these massive doses of steroid was manifest in a case of acute myelogenous leukemia. A few days after institution of treatment a change was apparent in the leukemic cells of the marrow involving some breaking up of the cells. The disintegration was progressive and ultimately almost complete. The bone marrow then underwent regeneration and complete remission was obtained. As in most of these cases however the remission was not long. They have ranged from about 6 weeks to 8 weeks and a little over.

It may be worth while to review briefly our experience with high dosage corticosteroid therapy in the chronic leukemias. The results of such treatment in chronic lymphocytic leukemia are rather interesting.

An 81 year old man with chronic lymphocytic leukemia was treated with massive doses of steroids. This individual had exceedingly large

CHAIRMAN BETHELL We shall defer discussion on the treatment of chronic leukemia with the steroids because I know Dr Dameshek and others have prepared comments to make on this topic We are now at the dividing point in our panel discussion so I will ask each member if he wishes to comment on some phase of the treatment of acute leukemia First I should like to ask Dr Gellhorn to speak on the subject of massive corticosteroid therapy in acute leukemia with special reference to adults

DR ALFRED GELLHORN I should like to compare and contrast the results obtained by Dr Helen Ranney and me with those presented by Dr Hill Our experience is much more limited than that of Dr Hill we have evaluated the effect of large doses of either cortisone or prednisone alone rather than in combination on acute leukemia

We have attempted in this study to limit ourselves to patients who are past the teen age We have three patients however two teenagers and one child of 8 who had become refractory to all other forms of therapy who also received large doses of prednisone I suppose the rest are in the classification of adults being 28 years of age or older

Before I show you our results I should like to state that our experience has not been quite the same as Dr Hill's in terms of toxicity We have developed a very real respect for massive doses of steroids and our toxicities include such minor things as the rapid development of moon faces euphoria and occasionally psychotic manifestations One of our patients was so convincing that he almost had me buying into his business

The problem of steroid diabetes in our experience also is not minor for when acidosis develops it presents difficulties in management

We have had two individuals who have had perforation of a viscus The problem of salt and water retention as indicated by Dr Hill is a real one in some individuals and that of potassium loss is also important and must be carefully guarded against

Finally in a number of our patients the problem of infection constitutes a serious complication In several instances septicemia which could not be controlled by antibiotics was the cause of death

Table I summarizes our results We have sixteen patients who fall into the category of easily diagnosed acute leukemia All patients who were treated with the exception of one single patient had acute symptoms These were not in the group that Dr Wintrobe has mentioned—patients with acute leukemia who at the moment are not symptomatic All these patients were symptomatic

lymph nodes which in the fruit and nut system of measurements reached the size of lemons in the neck and almost the size of oranges in the axilla. We were very much interested to see what massive steroid would do to the tumors. In this case we gave the medication and then decreased the dose slightly then resumed full dosage dropped down and again gave the full dose. Because of the patient's age and because he was retaining water we thought it unwise to continue and changed to a more standard form of therapy namely radioactive phosphorus. A lymph node puncture prior to therapy revealed small lymphocytes rather uniform in their staining and nuclear characteristics. Soon after treatment two kinds of cells were present—those that had spread out and stained more lightly and darker staining cells very similar to those seen before therapy. Later there was progressive lightening spreading out of the nuclei and apparent lysis of the cells. The lymph node masses regressed rapidly but the count stayed high so we tried it again and with the next case we were more successful.

We were a little more persistent in treating our next patient a man aged 72 with chronic lymphocytic leukemia and in this case we not only obtained regression of lymph nodes but also recession of the count to normal. The percentage of lymphocytes likewise returned to normal. It would have been difficult to have made a diagnosis of leukemia during this period of remission.

To summarize we have used the steroids in massive dosage in a total of fifty six cases of leukemia and allied conditions. Of these forty five were acute leukemia. Part of this group received steroids without prior specific therapy and I should like to analyze these a little further. In this group of sixteen cases there were twelve that showed remissions and four that did not. All the remissions were complete except one a good partial giving an over all remission rate of 75%. In so far as possible massive steroid therapy was given to consecutive cases. During this period however there were ten cases in which this type of steroid therapy was considered contraindicated because of possible danger. Further analysis showed that there were eleven cases over 21 years of age with six complete and one partial remission and four with no remission.

There were in addition twenty nine cases with mixed therapy and many of these were cases in which the steroid was used late in the disease when prior therapy had become ineffective. Of those above 21 years of age there were six that showed no remission and seven that did. In those under 21 years of age we had six showing no remission and ten that did show a remission.



TABLE 1 (Continued)

Patient	Age	Sex	Diagnosis	Duration of symptoms before steroid therapy	None	1 first	Two further complete remissions	Comment	Current status (months after first course of massive steroid)
S R	13	M	Acute lymphatic leukemia	2 months	None	Complete remission			Living (7 months)
M R	27	F	Acute myeloid leukemia	1 month	1 prednisone 75 mg o.d.	1 partial remission			Living (5 months)
M F	36	F	Acute myeloid leukemia	4 months	Prednisone 75 mg o.d.	Complete remission			Living (5 months)
L F	69	F	Acute leukemia ? monocytic	5 months	Transfusions	None			Dead (1 month)
N M S	32	M	Acute lymphatic leukemia	6 weeks	Prednisone 75 mg o.d.	Partial remission			Dead (2 months)
A I	26	M	Acute lymphatic leukemia	2 weeks	Prednisone 75 mg o.d.	Complete remission			Living (3 months)
M C	33	F	Acute lymphatic leukemia	4 weeks	Transfusions prednisone 75 mg o.d.	1 partial remission	Pregnant		Living (6 months)
W P	14	M	Acute myeloid leukemia	1 month	6-ME	1 partial remission			Living 1 yr to follow up (3 months)

TABLE I  
EFFECT OF PREDNISONE IN ACUTE LEUKEMIA (1000 MG DAILY)

Patient	Age	Sex	Diagnosis	Duration of symptoms before steroid therapy	Previous therapy	Effect	Comment	Current status (months after first course of massive steroid)
D O B	6	M	Acute leukemia	17 months	Cortisone	6 MP	None	Died on 8th day of steroid therapy
M K	28	F	Acute myeloid leukemia	3 months	Transfusions	Partial remission	Diabetes (transient)	Died (5 months)
I S	58	M	Acute leukemia	12 months	None	None—? acceleration of disease	Hypomania	Died (1 month)
R K	40	M	Acute leukemia	1 month	None	Complete remission	Subsequently two further complete remissions	Died (12 months)
N C	33	F	Acute myeloid leukemia	3 months	Transfusions	None		Died (1 month)
I M	42	M	Acute leukemia	10 days	None	Complete remission	Subsequently two more complete remissions	Died (5 months)
A I	42	F	Acute leukemia	5 months	6 MP & ray transfusions	None		Died (1 month)
J C	29	M	Acute leukemia ? monocytic	2 months	Hydrocortisone	Partial remission	Infection upper abdominal pain	Lost to follow up (2 months)
L Y	26	F	Acute myeloid leukemia	3 months	Cortisone	None		Died (1 month)
B C	70	M	Acute myeloid leukemia	3 weeks	None	None		Died (1 month)

**DR. CHARLES A. DOAN** We have tried it both ways during the last ten years in our Hematology Leukemia Clinic and we have very definitely the impression now that we have these newer agents that the relapses come much more quickly and more surely if we do not keep up maintenance therapy.

We have discussed the matter with intelligent patients and we have had in our longer remissions (up to two to three years) individuals who on Purnethol (6-mercaptopurine) for example have been kept on doses as small as 25 mg twice a week. We have not gone below that dose in the last three years.

I have been unwilling to stop the medication when the individual is in complete remission with normal bone marrow and a normal blood picture in health and as some of our young people are in school.

Formerly we did interrupt the therapy only when we could find no evidence of leukemia cells either in bone marrow or in the blood but the longest remission we have had on no therapy at all was 6 months. We have had remissions lasting 12 to 24 months in nearly identical cases on maintenance therapy. We believe at the moment at least in keeping doses small. Our patients in longest remissions are now receiving 6-mercaptopurine 25 mg twice a week.

**DR. WILLIAM DAMESIEK** Our impression is the same as that of Dr Doan. We have used maintenance therapy consistently and believe that it effectively controls the leukemic process for a longer period of time than without maintenance therapy.

**CHAIRMAN BETHELL** The only comment I have to make in this respect is that I think there is a difference perhaps between such agents as Myletan and Colcemid and the mustard group on the one hand, and the antimetabolites on the other because I have the impression that if one gives a metabolic antagonist in under dosage one might as well give nothing as it has no effect at all.

I think Dr Wintrobe has been rather left out. He introduced the whole subject but didn't have a chance to talk about anything specific.

**DR. WINTROBE** I have only two or three questions to ask. One question that has run through my mind in relation to massive dose steroid therapy is this. What evidence is there that such large amounts of steroids are doing a job which the more customary doses would not do? I should like to hear the answer to that spelled out as clearly as possible.

I should like to ask Dr Gellhorn whether he has a breakdown of his

In the group of sixteen patients four went into complete hematological and clinical remission four had a partial effect—that is the hematological picture had not been completely converted to normal. There were eight who had no effect whatsoever. There were three patients with subacute leukemia with a partial remission in one of these individuals and three individuals with the blastic crisis of chronic myeloid leukemia one of whom had a partial remission but only for a few weeks.

Our observations in the use of massive doses of steroids started in February 1955. At the present time the results in the individuals who have had a remission are that one person lived for a period of 12 months and died in February 1956. The life span of those patients who have had "complete" or "partial" remissions of their acute leukemia has been from 3 to 12 months however some patients in this group are still alive.

I should like to state that we have the impression that in one individual who was not clinically acutely ill associated with steroid therapy there was a very abrupt and rapid acceleration of the disease leading to his death. We do not know whether this was cause or effect. Temporally the relationship was impressive.

In those individuals who went into remission it was our observation that the characteristics were heralded by a sharp drop in the peripheral leukocyte count down to leukopenic levels. In those individuals who showed a rise in the peripheral white count invariably there was no effect.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL: Dr Moeschlin, do you have some comments you would like to make at this time?

DR SVEN MOESCHLIN: I do not know whether we should bring up this point now but I might ask a question here.

If a patient with acute leukemia goes into remission shall we then continue with a maintenance dose for the treatment or shall we stop the treatment until the patient has a recurrence of his disease?

Our experience is too limited in children and probably also in adults but we have the impression that the patient goes on better if we keep him on a maintenance dose after the occurrence of a remission. I should like to know how the other hematologists and clinicians here feel about this point.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL: Probably everyone here has his own opinion but I should like to ask Dr Doan first to give his

places to use them. One is the case that can't wait, another is the case that won't turn the corner, the third is the terminal case where one is trying to get one more remission.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL: Dr. Gellhorn, do you have any comments?

DR. GELLHORN: Dr. Wintrobe asked about our breakdown of the sixteen patients. We had six myeloid and four lymphatic and six that we could not classify. We call them "stem cell" leukemia. In terms of remissions in the myeloid cases, three had remissions; in the lymphatic cases, there were four; and in the stem cell cases, there were two.

I want to ask Dr. Hill about the duration of the remissions that he has achieved. Are these long term remissions?

DR. HILL: No, the remissions are not long. They are short term remissions, and therefore the policy is to obtain the remission with massive doses of steroids and as quickly as possible transfer to the anti-metabolites. One usually has about 2 months in which to do this.

The chief virtue of the steroid therapy is speed of action, and perhaps a little more certainty in obtaining the remission; an attempt is then made to hold it with the antimetabolites.

We make no effort after initially finding we are "short" to carry the patients. In fact, we like to use massive doses and get out as quickly as possible, feeling that perhaps resistance does not develop as rapidly that way.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL: We shall proceed to the question Dr. Wintrobe asked Dr. Doan about 6-mercaptopurine maintenance dosage.

DR. DOAN: I agree that the question always comes up as to what is a minimum dose. I am not a homeopathic physician, but nevertheless there is good reason for giving small doses sometimes, and I realize I am on the opposite end of this very high dosage affair.

We usually start out with between 100 and 200 mg. of 6-mercaptopurine (Purinethol) a day. When and as a remission occurs, we keep the patient on his optimum dosage or the dosage on which he has gained his remission for 1 to 2 weeks after the remission is established in terms of return to normal of the blood and bone marrow, and then we begin to drop the dosage slowly, 25 mg./day for a week at a time. So we gradually reduce the dosage by about 25 mg./day until we get down to 25 mg. arbitrarily (I admit) every 72 hours.

In the past, when we have gone to no therapy at all, we have had relapses in 6 weeks to 4 or 5 months, whereas we have individuals going

sixteen cases of acute leukemia treated with massive doses of corticosteroids

The third question would be to Dr Doan. What does Dr Doan visualize 25 mg of 6 mercaptopurine twice a week does? Is it really doing anything? I find it hard to visualize any effect from such a very small dose of an antipurine. I ask these questions for information.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. Dr Hill, can you answer Dr Wintrobe's question? What do these massive dosages accomplish that the more generally used dosages would not do?

DR JOSEPH M. HILL. I can try. I don't know whether I can satisfy him or not.

First of all, one can lyse cells according to the evidence presented this afternoon. That isn't done with the ordinary dosages.

I should like to say further that I believe one can obtain a higher percentage of remissions with massive doses, particularly in acute myelogenous and monocytic leukemias than have been heretofore reported.

I also should like to indicate that in using massive doses of steroids I think one has to do as is done with the antimetabolites: one must go ahead and skate on thin ice and utilize dosages that approach toxic levels in order to get the maximum number of remissions. I don't think this means 500 mg/day or 1 g/day or any particular dose. I believe we have been approaching toxic doses in the range of 3 to 5 g/day of the prednisolone type of compound and 500 to 600 mg/day of 9 $\alpha$  fluorohydrocortisone. These doses are used very cautiously. The patients are watched closely and daily counts are done.

I have before me a breakdown of cases. Of nine untreated myelogenous and monocytic leukemias six had remissions. Of seven lymphatic and plasma cell leukemias six had remissions. As I stated before, all remissions were complete except one myelogenous leukemia.

In the group that was mixed in respect to therapy—and this means essentially those cases where other things have failed and when one is getting on toward the end of therapy—of those above 21 years of age we had thirteen cases, seven of which obtained remissions. These of course were remissions in varying degree. We do not have the final figures for the partial remissions as yet. None of these is merely a clinical remission. We accept only cases having some substantial laboratory evidence of remission.

I think there are certain indications for the use of these steroids that have to be considered too in interpreting these figures. There are three

When one sees a patient with chronic leukemia, therefore one feels a great deal better. Here the condition seems relatively benign certainly in contrast with acute leukemia, and most of the time we can do something about it.

We began to get rather good results in chronic leukemia some years ago with the introduction by the Memorial group in New York of triethylenemelamine (TEM) and I think we can say pretty definitely that we get remissions in approximately 50% of the cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia that we treat. Of course we don't treat all cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia. I think it should be realized that in asymptomatic cases occurring in the older age group with counts ranging from 25 000 to 100 000 or so treatment is best withheld. Therapy often makes the situation worse and frequently one regrets ever having embarked on a therapeutic course. Such individuals are best watched at infrequent intervals; if too many blood counts are done the ultimate neurosis may become worse than the disease. In the more aggressive cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia therapy with TEM has been effective in approximately 50% of our cases. These cases are certainly not all alike. There may well be a metabolic difference between them as indicated by the failure of some cases to respond to TEM and their ready response to CB 1348.

As for Myleran, which we have used in chronic granulocytic leukemia, that is about the best of the chemotherapeutic agents that has thus far been introduced. Here both the course of the disease and the results with the chemical, which seems to be well nigh specific for this disease are highly consistent. In our series of thirty-four consecutive cases of chronic granulocytic leukemia treated with this chemical remissions were induced in practically every instance. Our dosages have been rather high particularly when the white count was over 200 000 and we have used doses of 8 to 16 mg/day. Within 4 weeks after the initiation of therapy with Myleran the white count is down to levels of approximately 20 000 from initial levels of anywhere from 100 000 to 800 000. We try to get the white count down to relatively low levels i.e. 5000 and 6000 by persistent maintenance therapy. We find that we obtain our best and longest remissions by reducing the leukocyte count down to these levels. When this has been accomplished, the drug is discontinued. I realize that at this point one is treading on thin ice and that the white count may then drop to 2000 to 3000 but thus far we have seen no deleterious effects from this procedure. The ensuing remissions are often very lengthy. Thus in two cases one has gone along for 19

for 2 years on 25 mg twice a week. That is the reason—by trial and error. We try employing the general principle in medicine to give the least medication that will keep an individual in equilibrium. The moment there is some sign of relapse we start to increase the dose and try to keep ahead of the disease. That is the plan of dosage that we have used.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. I should like to ask Dr. Farber if he has any further remarks he wishes to make at this time.

DR. FARBER. I should like to make one point about spontaneous remission in acute leukemia. I refer to Dr. Diamond's experience prior to 1947 when about 9% of some 300 children with acute leukemia had spontaneous remissions; the average duration was 10 weeks. In discussing the results obtained with newer methods of therapy we are not talking about anything that can be confused with these spontaneous remissions.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. That is certainly true.

During the past two days I have had an opportunity to talk to members of this panel and others with particular reference to the treatment of chronic leukemias and the place of drug therapy. It seemed at first to be the view of everyone to whom I spoke that we all have pretty much the same ideas: we use the same drugs for the same reasons. But after I had a little more experience and got down to cases and reported back what I had heard, such comments were frequently made as "What? Is that drug actually used for such a type of case and under those conditions?" So I believe there is more reason for discussing the treatment of chronic leukemias than might appear at first glance.

We shall begin the second portion of this program by asking Dr. William Dameshek to speak on the general subject of the treatment of chronic leukemia with especial reference to newer agents.

DR. DAMESHEK. I think it is a welcome change to get away from the acute leukemias despite all the therapeutic benefits we have been hearing about. After awhile particularly when one deals with adults as I do largely, one becomes depressed with the ineffectiveness of our present modes of therapy. This I have called "of pathetic benefit" because if we had really good agents we would throw all our present ones out of the window and would not quibble about relatively minor things as amount of dosage or whether maintenance should be used. We must admit that at the moment our therapeutic efforts particularly in the adults are hopelessly inadequate.



and CB 1348 in the lymphocytic variety and the steroids in the autoimmune complication of chronic lymphocytic leukemia Hodgkins disease and lymphosarcomatosis

CHAIRMAN BETHELL I think the last point made is a very important one that the dosage of corticosteroid for control of the autoimmune process may be very much lower than that which will affect rate of proliferation or produce lysis of leukemic lymphocytes

We shall now proceed to a discussion of a different type of compound I don't know who first used colchicine in the treatment of leukemia or other forms of malignant disease I suppose the idea occurred to a number of people after the demonstration of its effect on mitosis in plant cells Those early efforts seemed to come to nothing largely I suppose because of the toxic side effects that prevented adequate trial of the compound

With the introduction of the analog of colchicine in which a methyl group is substituted for the acetyl group the disadvantages of the parent compound for prolonged therapy have been largely eliminated We have asked Dr Sven Moeschlin to relate to us his experiences with this new drug known as Colcemid or Demecolcine which he first introduced into the treatment of leukemia

DR MOESCHLIN First I should like to make some comments concerning the treatment of the chronic leukemias before I go into the matter of colchicine

I think it is very essential to stress the point as emphasized by Dr Dameshek that the chronic lymphocytic leukemias should not be treated as early as possible The unfortunate thing in Switzerland is that all these chronic lymphocytic leukemia cases come to the radiologist and he just pulls them down with x ray until all the glands and the spleen have disappeared I don't think the patient feels any better at all We also believe that it is beneficial to wait until anemia develops or until the patient is clinically sick

As to the use of prednisone as an antihemolytic agent we have employed very small doses the maintenance dose usually being 10 to 15 mg daily and most of the patients have done very well

I also should like to point out that some people believe it is dangerous to treat with TEM patients who have an infiltration of bone marrow with lymphocytes and a leukopenia and thrombocytopenia From the experience of many investigators as well as ourselves this is one of the indications for TEM One must give very small doses We usually start

months and another has gone along for 15 months without further therapy

Two cases in the series of Myleran treated cases developed thrombocytopenia and for that reason the drug had to be discontinued. A myeloblast crisis developed within 6 months in two cases. Whether this was initiated by the drug or came on coincidentally is of course uncertain since at least eight of ten of our cases of chronic granulocytic leukemia develop myeloblast crisis as a terminal affair whatever therapy is given. It is our impression based on these cases that Myleran does not hasten the development of blast crisis unfortunately it does not prevent it.

In most cases except those in which the white count has gone down to very low levels we use a maintenance dose of approximately 2 mg daily. This simple medication—a pill—seems far better in this disease than x ray therapy. It is easier to use, it has remarkable specificity, and it requires no referral to another specialist.

Now about steroids and chronic leukemia. When in doubt about what to use we use steroids for almost any case of leukemia so we use steroids a good deal perhaps to control bleeding and perhaps to make the patient feel better. Sometimes it is a good idea to make the patient feel better rather than to do anything drastic.

I am not so sure whether 1000 mg of prednisone or 500 mg or 200 mg represents the correct dosage. These massive doses may at times be effective but they certainly are apt to result in very severe fulminating infections, diabetic reactions and all the side effects that Dr Gellhorn has mentioned—and we must therefore use them with caution.

The greatest value of the steroids in our experience has been in chronic lymphocytic leukemia with complicating autoimmune hemolytic manifestation in which their action is almost specific. This complication develops in approximately one case out of ten. The increased hemolysis can be quickly controlled in almost every case with sufficient doses of ACTH or steroids. This works out far better than splenectomy in most cases control continues for a long while or until the leukemic process becomes exacerbated. In cases of both chronic lymphocytic leukemia and Hodgkin's disease the hemolytic process may be controlled by the steroid even though the underlying proliferative process is not greatly affected by therapy. Maintenance therapy with steroid is required lest the hemolytic process again relapse.

Thus we now have available for the treatment of chronic leukemia two or three effective agents. Myleran in the granulocytic type, TEM

probably the best animal for the evaluation of the inhibitory effect of new cytostatics on granulocytopenesis. So one can say that the leukocytes of men and cats behave similarly. It has long been known that the characters of cats and some humans have much in common.

Schar *et al.* (52) demonstrated an antimitotic action similar to that of colchicine in cultures of normal and malignant cells and in implanted tumors. They also showed that the lethal dose *iv.* for mice was thirty to forty times as high as that for colchicine.

In our study of the action of Demecolcine on the bone marrow and peripheral blood rabbits and cats were used (44-45).

After preliminary experiments the cats were given 0.25 mg/kg body weight daily intraperitoneally and the rabbits 3 mg/kg intravenously. This dosage was chosen to produce a definite change in the blood picture without causing any significant side effects. Erythrocytes, reticulocytes and leukocytes were counted in all the animals; differential counts were prepared and periodic marrow punctures performed.

Only the main findings will be indicated here. For more details the reader is referred to the dissertation by Lichtman (34).

Two days after the intravenous injection of Demecolcine the total number of leukocytes began to drop owing to a decrease in the neutrophils. The effect was delayed about 12 to 14 days in animals treated orally. After cessation of therapy the neutrophil count began to rise in 2 days, attaining its initial value within 8 to 10 days. With the dosage used the lymphocytes were found to be only slightly affected in the cat and negligibly in the rabbit, with similar results in the thrombocyte, erythrocyte and reticulocyte counts. Examination of the bone marrow revealed a definite diminution to approximately one third of the initial values of the myelogenous elements, so that the erythropoietic portion appeared relatively increased. During the administration of this rather high dose no side effects were observed in the rabbit other than a definite weight loss and an inhibitory effect on spermatogenesis. The cats were more sensitive and were unable to tolerate a dosage of 0.5 mg/kg body weight showing emesis, ptyalism, muscular pain and difficulty in swallowing. No more severe changes were seen in the bone marrow of cats than in the rabbits; this is in contrast to our findings in cats given urethan (43).

*In summary, the doses used, namely 0.25 mg/kg in cats and 3 mg/kg in rabbits, produced a definite, almost elective inhibition of the granulocytopenesis without any important side effects.*

with 25 mg and wait 3 weeks if the patient does not get better we give him 5 mg the next time. We have seen many remissions with this treatment.

Now I should like to speak about Colcemid. Perhaps I am not being completely objective about this because one always likes one's own children first.

The purpose of this presentation is to give an account of our present knowledge of the clinical and experimental use of Colcemid and to compare the results with those of other cytostatic substances.

Since the work of Jacoby (27), Dustin (19) and Bucher (10) the inhibitory action of colchicine on mitosis with blocking in the metaphase has been well known. With the exception of local application to skin tumors its clinical use by Landolt (31) in the therapy of tumors and leukemias failed owing to the generalized toxicity of the substance. Santavy and Reichstein (50) succeeded in isolating purified alkaloids from the mixture present in *Colchicum autumnale*. Among these an alkaloid designated as Demecolcine (deacetylmethylcolchicine Colcemid<sup>1</sup>) proved of interest because of its lowered general toxicity (Fig. 1).

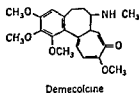
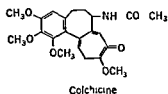


FIG. 1

We started our trials of the new derivative first on animals and seeing a distinct inhibitory effect on granulocytopoiesis in cats began to use it in patients suffering from chronic myeloid leukemia in the autumn of 1952. Since that time many have employed the new drug and more than fifty-nine papers concerning this compound have appeared in the literature.

**Pharmacological Properties** Demecolcine is a crystalline water soluble alkaloid obtained from the seed of the *Colchicum autumnale* plant. The normal acetyl group is replaced by a methyl group melting point 180 to 186.

**Experimental Work** As we have demonstrated before (43) the cat is

<sup>1</sup> Ciba Co. Basel, Switzerland

terruption the maintenance dose is started which usually corresponds to one third of the dose needed before. This maintenance dose is individually very different and lies between 3 and 4 mg for most cases. But some cases being in a late phase of their disease need up to 6-8 and exceptionally even 10 mg daily. In the beginning the leukocytes have to be counted daily. When the maintenance dose has once been established leukocyte counts may be performed twice weekly and later once weekly or even twice monthly. It is better to maintain the leukocyte level between 12,000 and 15,000 and not to depress the leukocyte level to a completely normal count. This is also true for the other cytostatic treatments. We have five patients who have taken Colcemid continuously now for 3 years and who are still perfectly able to do their daily work. But some of the patients may develop resistance after a more or less long time of treatment, as they also do for other drugs and one may have to change to another cytostatic i.e. Myleran.

*Tolerance and Side Effects* The tolerance to the drug in this dosage is usually excellent. Patients show no loss of appetite on the contrary, the appetite increases as the general condition improves. In a dosage of 4 to 8 mg daily we have never encountered nausea or vomiting. Some nausea and vomiting may occur in a daily dosage of more than 10 mg or after intravenous administration but we don't feel this is normally necessary. Bock and Gross (7) have given up to 20 mg orally daily but we feel that this is too toxic and may lead to disagreeable side effects. In a dosage of 2 to 6 mg daily no alopecia occurred but going up to 8 and 10 mg one may observe alopecia in some cases and with more than over 10 mg it is usual for some alopecia to occur. Nevertheless the hairs start growing again when the drug is reduced or suspended for a certain time. After the higher dose azoospermia may occur as with Myleran or other cytostatics. Unlike the normal colchicine Colcemid produces no gastric symptoms and no diarrhea. This is confirmed by many other authors (1 6 8 9 18 20 21 23 24 28 30 32 33 35 36 46-48 53 57 58).

The thrombocyte and erythrocyte counts showed no depression in our cases with long term treatment in comparison to treatment with Myleran where some cases may show thrombocytopenia (Hansen 24b and others). The hemoglobin and the erythrocyte count usually undergo a rise. If the patient is already in a late phase showing myeloblastic transformation anemia may persist and necessitate transfusion.

*Myeloblastic Transformation of Chronic Myeloid Leukemia* Most chronic myeloid leukemias show myeloblastic transformation at the end

## Clinical Tests

### CHRONIC MYELOGENOUS LEUKEMIA

Until now a total of thirty patients have been treated and some of them followed over a period of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  years. A distinct depressive action was seen on the pathologically increased leukocyte levels together with a decrease in the size of the enlarged spleen and improvement of the general condition and hemoglobin level in twenty eight of thirty patients. Comparison of the sternal marrow and the splenic puncture prior to therapy and after 3 months of treatment showed a marked change from immature myeloid to more mature forms. This change is similar to that described in our investigations of arsenic compounds and urethan (39-41) and also occurs with the other cytostatics as for example Myleran. During treatment many degenerative mitoses in the anaphase can be found in the bone marrow and spleen puncture (6).

Since our first report many other papers have appeared in the literature (1, 6, 8, 9, 18, 20, 21, 23, 24, 28, 30, 32, 33, 35, 36, 46, 48, 53, 57, 58).

**Dosage** In our experience it is best to start with a dose of 4 mg of Colcemid daily divided into two doses given orally morning and evening. There is great individual sensitivity of patients to this drug. In some patients the leukocyte count comes down on a dose of 4 mg daily whereas others need a higher dose. If the patient shows no effects after 10 days the dose may be increased to a daily intake of 6 mg. A few patients need higher doses of up to 10 mg of Colcemid daily. So if no distinct drop in the leukocytes occurs after 2 or 3 weeks of treatment with the smaller dosage the amount can be individually increased to 8 or 10 mg.

Some patients with chronic myeloid leukemia who are in the late phase of their disease and already showing many blast forms need higher doses. But in these cases too it is better to start with a smaller dose and to increase slowly. If no effect occurs or if the patient is in a poor state and needs a very quick response one can use the i.v. injection of the preparation which acts much more rapidly. One may start with 5 mg i.v. and count the leukocytes daily. If necessary the i.v. dose can be increased to 10 mg daily (injection of the diluted drug—in dextrose solution—slowly in 5 to 10 minutes sometimes a slight nausea occurs).

**Maintenance Dose** As soon as the total leukocyte count has dropped to a level of 30 000 medication is stopped for 3 or 4 days. The leukocyte level usually continues to drop for the next 5 to 6 days. After this in

*Conclusion* Colcemid has now been on trial for  $3\frac{1}{2}$  years in our patients with chronic myeloid leukemia. It has the advantage of being very well tolerated and the patient can take therapeutic doses for probably many years without showing any side effects. *Especially it has to be stressed that in none of our patients observed until now as well as in those described in the literature has thrombocytopenia occurred.* No depressive effect on erythropoiesis by the maintenance dose used has been observed. Colcemid may also have a great advantage in comparison to other cytostatic drugs in the treatment of chronic myeloid leukemia in that it will often still be active in the late myeloblastic transformation phase. The disadvantage of Colcemid is that the drug shows a more individualized response than for example Myleran. So in the beginning the leukocyte count must be checked daily and later on weekly and eventually every fortnight. But for long term treatment this disadvantage of more frequent blood examinations may be compensated for by the good tolerance of the drug and the excellent general condition of the patient. Alopecia may sometimes occur with higher dosages or when the patient is especially sensitive. It is always a transient episode and the hair will grow again. In the thirty patients treated this inconvenience was only seen twice in patients receiving over 10 mg daily.

### Chronic Lymphatic Leukemia

On the basis of the animal experiments the main action of Demecolcine was expected to be on granulopoiesis and not on lymphopoiesis. This was confirmed in our clinical trials in the treatment of lymphatic leukemia. *The drug should therefore not be used in such cases.*

In this group two of the most impressive clinical results were as follows:

The first patient a 72 year old male had a diagnosis of typical lymphatic leukemia (old lymphocytic cell type) combined with lymphosarcoma exhibiting extremely pathological cells in the gland punctures. There was a good response in the treatment of the lymphosarcoma attended by a slight decrease in the lymphocytes but he developed agranulocytosis of 10 days duration necessitating blood transfusions and antibiotics.

The second patient was a 57 year-old male who was admitted to the hospital in an extremely poor general condition. Blood values were 1.7 million erythrocytes with 39% hemoglobin, leukocytes 190 000 with 96% lymphocytes. Sternal puncture revealed infiltrated

of their disease. Of five cases with this terminal myeloblastic transformation three have responded very well to Colcemid therapy. Usually higher doses are necessary in these cases sometimes up to 10 mg and if no effect is seen orally one may change to the i.v. treatment for some time. This observation that Colcemid may be active in the latest phase where Myleran usually no longer has an effect has been confirmed by other authors as in one case by Luhrs (36), another case by Pribilla and Stollberg (48) and in one case of Pincly (47). Leonard and Wilkinson (32) had two cases with myeloblastic transformation which failed to respond. We think the dosage used was too low however so no conclusions can be reached. Bock and Gross (6) saw no result in these cases.

Three cases with terminal blast transformation will be discussed. The first patient came in in a very poor condition he had been resistant to a ray treatment and Myleran before. He showed a marked improvement in general condition and also in the blood picture. Nevertheless the hemoglobin and the erythrocyte count remained unchanged. The second case came in with a severe bleeding of the gums and also in poor general condition. He has now been working for a year with a daily intake of between 6 and 8 mg of Colcemid.

The third was another type of myeloid leukemia with bleeding. The patient came in with over 500 000 cells 10% blasts and a total of 54% very immature forms. Only the very large spleen led us to suppose that he had suffered from a chronic myeloid leukemia before which had never been treated. He had been very tired and in poor condition for the last 3 years. This patient a boy of 16 years needed very high doses of Colcemid in relation to his body weight which was only 39.9 kg. He required i.v. treatment in the beginning with a dosage of 10 mg daily which was reduced and then stopped for a short time. The blast forms returned very quickly. He has now been maintained on 8 to 10 mg daily for 1½ years and he is still in very good health and going to school. This patient lost his hair twice when the high dosage was used i.v. Two other patients with an acute myeloblastic transformation who did well under previous treatment with maintenance doses of Colcemid failed in a later phase to respond to higher doses of Colcemid and also did not respond to Myleran. They showed a slight improvement with 6 mercaptopurine (Purinethol). Personally I think that the great advantage of Colcemid is the fact that some of the myeloblastic transformations which often occur in the later stages of chronic myeloid leukemia may still respond to Colcemid treatment but usually not to other cytostatic drugs.



**Conclusion** Colcemid has now been on trial for  $3\frac{1}{2}$  years in our patients with chronic myeloid leukemia. It has the advantage of being very well tolerated and the patient can take therapeutic doses for probably many years without showing any side effects. Especially it has to be stressed that in none of our patients observed until now as well as in those described in the literature has thrombocytopenia occurred. No depressive effect on erythropoiesis by the maintenance dose used has been observed. Colcemid may also have a great advantage in comparison to other cytostatic drugs in the treatment of chronic myeloid leukemia in that it will often still be active in the late myeloblastic transformation phase. The disadvantage of Colcemid is that the drug shows a more individualized response than for example Myleran. So in the beginning the leukocyte count must be checked daily and later on weekly and eventually every fortnight. But for long term treatment this disadvantage of more frequent blood examinations may be compensated for by the good tolerance of the drug and the excellent general condition of the patient. Alopecia may sometimes occur with higher dosages or when the patient is especially sensitive. It is always a transient episode and the hair will grow again. In the thirty patients treated this inconvenience was only seen twice in patients receiving over 10 mg daily.

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marrow After receiving only 65 mg over a period of 13 days he died in an acute lymphatic exacerbation with a terminal cell rise to 400 000 He also developed a severe necrotic tonsillitis

*Our experience with Colcemid in lymphatic leukemia shows that its use here is strictly contraindicated* Other investigators i.e Leonard and Wilkinson (32) and Bousser and Christol (9) have had the same experience and have also seen some very severe exacerbations or granulocytopenic reactions Only Storti and Gallinelli (55) believe that Colcemid may be useful in some cases in a low dosage and with frequent counts of the granulocytes The severe exacerbation which was found in the second patient with lymphatic leukemia discussed above and the similar observations by Leonard and Wilkinson (32) lead to the conclusion that the drug should not be used in chronic lymphatic leukemia

#### Acute Blast Cell Leukemia

The clear therapeutic success in chronic myeloid leukemia especially in some of the blast cell transformations in the late phase of the disease made us consider using the drug also in primary acute subleukemic leukemia One case of a 33 year old male is showing a definitely good response The essential findings of this case will be described

*Physical Findings* The general condition was poor Spleen and lymph glands were not palpable Liver was slightly enlarged to below the costal margin RBC 856 000 with 25% hemoglobin color index 1.47 There were 5000 leukocytes with 16% blasts thrombocytes 17 100 Sternal marrow showed 50% blast forms with large nuclei and relatively little cytoplasm

*Clinical Course* After daily treatment with 5 mg of Demecolcine and blood transfusions the patient showed a distinct clinical remission Although the blast forms continued to constitute about 50% of the cells in the sternal marrow there were only occasional blast cells in the peripheral smears

Resistance to Demecolcine developed in the fifth month manifested by a new rise in the leukocytes and blast forms with the simultaneous appearance of thrombocytopenic purpura 6 Mercaptopurine (Lurnethol) was instituted resulting in a new remission The patient died 12 months after the onset of his disease

Other cases however have not shown the same result although one case (an adult male) which I saw personally in the department of Professor Waldenstrom in Malmo Sweden also showed a very good response but developed resistance after 12 months Demecolcine may be tried in some cases which fail to respond to other drugs Leonard and D'Angelo (33) treated seven cases of acute blastic leukemia with no result Storti and Gallinelli (55) and Bock and Gross (6) also obtained no results *The main field of Demecolcine is restricted to chronic*

*myeloid leukemia and the terminal blast cell transformation of chronic myeloid leukemia but not to the primary acute blast cell leukemia*

#### Other Diseases

Twenty two cases of carcinoma and sarcoma were treated. The daily dosage varied from 3 to 7 mg. Side effects with granulocytopenia occurred in seven cases with a drop of the granulocytes in one case to 499 (a total of 870 leukocytes). No other toxic effects were observed. Although nausea and emesis were present in six cases prior to therapy none could be attributed solely to the Colcemid. A definite therapeutic effect was not observed in any of these cases.

In a case of hypernephroma with metastases in the lungs and bones the temperature which was increased before fell to normal and an obvious improvement of appetite occurred but the tumors in the lungs remained unchanged. Four cases of lymphosarcoma showed a slight regression of the lymph nodes but no definite remission as was the case with TEM which was employed later. Four myeloma patients showed no effect. In the literature Volterra and Romualdi (57) have mentioned one case of parotid tumor and one of ovarian carcinoma which seemed to respond to Demecolcine treatment.

**Hodgkins Disease** Although we have used the drug in only three cases we do not have the impression of having produced any definite effect on the disease. Storti and Gallinelli (53) however have reported good results in a long term treatment with small doses of 2 to 4 mg daily. This has been confirmed by Gigante (23), Volterra and Romualdi (57) and Zbinden (59). All these authors recommend Colcemid to be used when other treatments have been abandoned. Zbinden (59) has reported an interesting case of Hodgkins disease with lung metastases which responded very well to combined treatment of Colcemid and x ray. He injected the Colcemid (4 to 6 mg) iv 6 to 8 hours before the x ray treatment. He thinks that the action of Colcemid in arresting mitoses in the anaphase tends to make the patient more sensitive to the later x ray treatment.

**Skin Tumors** Good results with an application of Colcemid ointment to the skin in neoplastic transformation have been reported by several authors. The results were especially striking in Bowen's precancerosis and also sometimes impressive in basal cell carcinoma. Agostini (2), Cottini and Randazzo (16), Berres (5) and Midana and Ormea (38) saw good results from injecting the Colcemid directly into the tumors of mycosis fungoides. No results were seen in lupus erythematosus by Volterra and Romualdi (57).

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**Gout** Very good results can be obtained in the acute phase of gouty arthritis. We have seen prompt relief in 6 to 12 hours in three cases with a single dose of 8 mg orally. And Colsky *et al* (15) obtained good remissions starting with 1 mg every hour up to a total of 8 mg. We prefer the total dose of 8 to 10 mg given in a single dose at the start of the attack.

### Summary

Colcemid, an alkaloid isolated by Santavy and Reichstein (50) in 1950 from *Colchicum autumnale*, shows a toxicity one thirtieth that of colchicine in animal experiments and a marked selective depressive effect on granulocytopoiesis. *Clinical trials which have now been in progress for 3½ years and the confirmation of many other authors show that Demecolcine can be recommended for a long term oral therapy of chronic myeloid leukemia.* The good tolerance and the lack of toxic side effects with the dosage recommended may be stressed. The initial dose should be 4 mg daily and should slowly be increased to 6 to 8 mg daily and in some severe cases even up to 10 mg daily. The drug should be stopped for 3 or 4 days after the leukocytes have dropped to 30,000 and then may be resumed at a maintenance level which varies between 3 and 4 mg in most cases. In some cases however the maintenance dose has to be increased to 6 mg and in a few cases even to 10 mg daily. *The great advantage of the drug is that it may also be useful in some late cases with terminal blast cell transformation.*

No side effects on other blood cells have so far been observed. Especially it should be stressed that no thrombocytopenic effect has been seen in all the cases observed or reported in the literature up to now. Alopecia may occasionally occur if a high dosage is used or if the patient is especially sensitive. But normal hair growth has returned in all cases. As in other cytostatics (nitrogen mustard, Myleran, arsenic, etc.) there is an inhibition of spermatogenesis and probably ovulation (one case at autopsy and our animal experiments). The side effects are unimportant in comparison to the good clinical effect on the leukemia, however.

*Colcemid is strictly contraindicated in lymphatic leukemia*, producing sometimes a very striking exacerbation of the disease or severe granulocytopenia which may even be fatal. Unfortunately Colcemid administered orally or intravenously has not proved a definite therapeutic success in the therapy of other neoplasms (myeloma, lymphosarcoma, Hodgkin's carcinoma and sarcoma) and cannot be employed in a sufficiently high dose because of its leukopenic effect. It may however be helpful for tumor injection and external application in the case of some skin tumors.

cases included. There are shown Dr Wintrobe's results through 1954. There is a more recent publication which increases his experience but the results are he tells me comparable to those reported in 1954. As can be seen there is excellent general agreement in the results obtained by the several investigators. Between 80 and 90% of individuals with chronic myeloid leukemia are benefited by the drug and the duration of remission is from zero time in those individuals who do not respond up to 48 months.

In our experience we have used this agent only when the patient is symptomatic, as has been indicated by Dr Moeschlin and Dr Dameshek. I am not so sure as they are that this is necessarily right. I don't believe we have the evidence.

TABLE I  
TREATMENT OF CHRONIC MYELOID LEUKEMIA WITH MYLERAN

Investigator	Number of cases	Daily dose mg	Remissions		Duration of remission months
			Number	%	
Galton (1955)	30	4-10	6	88	0-48
Shunkin (1954)	11	2-25	7	84	0-19
Wintrobe (1955)	16	4-6	14	88	2-21
Cigante (1955)	14	10-20	12	86	0-5
Prinilla (1955)	10	2-6	9	90	4-15
Ramsoul (1955)	5	2-8	3	60	-
Suarez (1955)	3	4-8	3	100	4-9
Videbaek (1955)	7	8-12	6	86	2-16
	96	2-27	80	83	0-48
DeLafield Presbyterian group (1955)	21	2-20	17	81	0-48
Total	117	2-25	97	83	0-48

It is possible with an agent as easily administered as Myleran that it would be worth while to accumulate evidence to find out whether therapy of an individual as soon as the diagnosis is made may improve the over all results. Perhaps this would take too many cases and too much time. I don't think we are permitted a statement such as has been made however that one must withhold therapy until the patient is symptomatic.

DR DAMESHEK: We don't do that except in the very benign mild cases of lymphocytic leukemia. In the chronic granulocytic cases we always start treatment immediately.

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CHAIRMAN BETHELL I should like to ask Dr Gellhorn and Dr Doan who will speak next on the subject of chronic leukemias with special reference to chemotherapy at the time they report their results to attempt to define the usefulness of the drugs under discussion in relation to other agents which have been available for a long time

In particular we should like to know how Myleran in the treatment of chronic granulocytic leukemia and Chlorambucil or CB 1348 in the management of chronic lymphocytic leukemia and Hodgkin's disease compare with ionizing radiation and what indications there may be in the speakers experience for the choice of a drug instead of radiation and vice versa

Dr Gellhorn will you begin?

DR GELLHORN Since Dr Dameshek was good enough to leave something for me to say and since he didn't bring a lantern slide I should like to summarize his results with Myleran

The results of a number of investigators are summarized in Table I which is a bit out of date and does not have Dr Dameshek's thirty four



cases included. There are shown Dr. Wintrobe's results through 1954. There is a more recent publication which increases his experience but the results are, he tells me, comparable to those reported in 1954. As can be seen, there is excellent general agreement in the results obtained by the several investigators. Between 80 and 90% of individuals with chronic myeloid leukemia are benefited by the drug and the duration of remission is from zero time in those individuals who do not respond up to 48 months.

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Gigante (1955)	14	10-20	12	86	0-5
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Ramoul (1955)	5	2-8	3	60	-
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DR. DAMESHEK: We don't do that except in the very benign mild cases of lymphocytic leukemia. In the chronic granulocytic crises we always start treatment immediately.

DR GELLHORN Thank you Dr Dameshek

At our clinic (1) Myleran is given in doses of 10 mg daily and treatment is continued usually until the count has fallen to approximately 25% of its initial level. Thus if the leukocyte count starts at 400 000 we pause at the time the count has fallen to 100 000 to see whether it will fall further. We are also guided by the slope of the fall. If the fall is very precipitous then therapy may be withheld to find out the level to which leukocytes will decrease.

Like Dr Dameshek we feel it is important to take the count to a normal level before discontinuing therapy. Unlike Dr Dameshek we do not use maintenance therapy except in those individuals who have demonstrated that there will be a prompt rise in the count. Some individuals fall into this group and others remain in remission for periods measurable in terms of a year or more.

We have administered the compound to patients with other malignant diseases including various types of epithelial tumors but without any effect. I hope that in the discussion Dr Bierman will comment on the use of this agent in the treatment of acute leukemia or the blastic crisis of chronic myeloid leukemia.

The other compound about which there has been comment this evening is CB 1348 which is now being distributed in this country for investigational use by Burroughs Wellcome under the name of Chlorambucil. It is a nitrogen mustard related to the compound HN2 and is related as well to triethylene thiophosphoramide also called thio TEPA. This agent is active on oral administration. It has been studied in a variety of lymphomas.

Our experience has been primarily in the treatment of chronic lymphatic leukemia and to date we have studied eighteen patients (2). The results do not approach those of Myleran in terms of efficacy. We had three individuals who fell into the category of excellent objective remission which means no evidence of disease. There are eight individuals in whom the improvement was considered good in these patients the differential count did not return to normal. There were nine individuals who had essentially no improvement.

Interestingly enough in spite of the fact that there were eleven good responses in these eighteen patients the subjective improvement was not so satisfactory as the objective. In other words we were treating in some cases the peripheral count rather than the patient.

I am unable to answer the question posed by our Chairman namely

the advantage of this compound over radiotherapy because there is no quantitative evidence on that to the best of my knowledge

One of the chief advantages of Chlorambucil over triethylenemelamine is that it produces no unpleasant subjective side reactions in the patient There is no nausea or vomiting Triethylenemelamine you know does have such side reactions Further we have found that this is a relatively less toxic compound in terms of depressing platelets to hazardous levels We have not observed this in any one of the patients thus far treated and therefore we feel that it is a somewhat safer agent to use than triethylenemelamine for patients on an ambulatory basis

We have not observed any significant complications with this agent other than in one individual who had a rapid fall of the peripheral count He was painting his barn in the hot summer and developed hyperuricemia with complete renal shutdown which amazingly was reversed by nephrostomies and washing out of large amounts of urate crystals from the pelvis This is the primary complication that we have observed with Chlorambucil

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CHAIRMAN BETHELL I think it is a complication that may be observed with any agent capable of producing intense lysis of leukemic cells

Dr Doan would you like to continue?

DR DOAN It has been established that nitrogen mustard and to a lesser extent TEM are recognized supplements to radiotherapy in the treatment of disseminated Hodgkin's disease and in some stages of other related lymphomas and leukemias Nitrogen mustard has the disadvantages however that it must be administered intravenously that it produces marked and at times irreversible bone marrow depression and that it may cause such side effects as malaise nausea vomiting and enteritis Triethylenemelamine (TEM) which may be administered by mouth is often very toxic and its effects unpredictable

During the past eight years a large series of aromatic derivatives of the nitrogen mustards have been synthesized and screened at the Chester Beatty Research Institute Royal Cancer Hospital London (3) The most promising one of these compounds thus far has been designated

CB 1348 it is *p* bis (2 chloroethyl)aminophenylbutyric acid a limited supply of which compound has been provided to Dr B K Wiseman Dr B A Bouroncle and myself through the courtesy of Professor Alexander Haddow Director of the Institute

A total of fifty five selected patients have been treated in our leukemia and lymphoma clinics over the past 15 months There were thirty patients with tissue verified Hodgkins disease thirteen with monocytic leukemia two with reticulum cell sarcoma one with lymphosarcoma three with chronic lymphatic leukemia one with acute lymphatic leukemia one with multiple myeloma three with metastatic carcinoma and one with mycosis fungoides There were twenty nine males and twenty six females and their ages ranged from 2½ to 77 years

The compound was administered by mouth as 2 mg tablets given preferably before meals two or three times daily

The initial dose of CB 1348 in most patients was 0.3 mg/kg/day for a total period of 21 days In most patients treatment was then stopped A second course of therapy was administered when symptoms of activity recurred The dosage was either the same as the initial dosage or more frequently only 0.2 mg/kg/day for 21 days All patients after the second course and most patients after the initial course were kept on a maintenance dosage of CB 1348 of 0.05 mg/kg/day

A few patients complained of nausea and anorexia during the course of therapy Only in one case however did these complaints necessitate discontinuation of the treatment Several patients complained of "nervousness" during therapy This symptom disappeared when CB 1348 was discontinued or when the patients were changed to a maintenance dose

Most patients developed a transitory slight to moderate leukopenia anemia and thrombocytopenia The maximum depression was usually observed 6 weeks after treatment was initiated In therapeutically effective dosages however the depressant effect on the bone marrow was surprisingly moderate and rapidly reversible even in patients who already showed a hypoplastic marrow as a result of previous treatments

Our results in patients with Hodgkins disease on the whole have been encouraging Thirty patients (seventeen males and thirteen females) with an age range from 12 to 64 years have been treated with CB 1348 The diagnosis in all cases was confirmed by lymph node biopsy The duration of illness before CB 1348 therapy was initiated was from 3 months to 14 years With the exception of one patient all had received some form of treatment previously twenty eight had received from one

to seven courses of deep x ray therapy in the evolution of their disease fifteen patients had had from one to seven courses of nitrogen mustard and six had been given TEM. Three had undergone surgery for complications related to Hodgkin's disease two of them had required splenectomy and one had a laminectomy with removal of an epidural Hodgkin's mass.

All thirty patients had developed signs and symptoms of generalized disease. All but five were in far advanced stages of the disease. Most of the patients had previously failed to respond to x ray, nitrogen mustard and TEM therapy or were not suitable for nitrogen mustard or TEM therapy because of marked depression of the hematopoietic system. The results of treatment in these patients with Hodgkin's disease are summarized in Table I. One patient is listed as having drug intolerance. Administration of the drug was discontinued because of marked nausea. One other patient in this group complained of this symptom but only to a mild degree.

Seven of the patients failed to respond to the first course of CB 1348 therapy. Two of these patients were "terminal" cases who received only eight days of therapy. One had parenchymal infiltration of the lungs which progressed during therapy and the other two showed progression of neurologic signs and symptoms despite CB 1348 therapy.

Four patients showed "some effect" due to medication in the sense that their general condition and some of the symptoms improved but this improvement lasted for less than 2 months. Eleven patients are listed as "improved." By this is meant that the drug induced a remission of real value lasting from 2 to 4 months. Five of these patients received a second course of CB 1348: one had a second complete remission which lasted 7 months and is at present receiving the third course of this medication and one had a second remission which has been in progress for 1 month. The other three failed to respond to the second course of therapy.

Seven patients with Hodgkin's disease are listed as having a "good" remission. By this is meant that the drug induced an improvement of real value to the patient so that as a result of therapy something approaching a return to normal life was achieved for a period of 4 months or longer. Three of these patients are still in their first remission for 4 to 7 months. The other four patients obtained a remission after a second course of CB 1348. One of them is in a second remission of 10 months duration at present. The second patient received a third course and is in a third remission at present for 3 months. One other patient

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failed to respond any longer to CB 1348 or to x ray therapy and died on December 30 1955 Galton *et al* (2) have continued to obtain successful remissions after as many as six courses of CB 1348 therapy

The favorable effects in patients who responded to CB 1348 included a rapid return of the temperature to normal usually during the third to twelfth day of therapy lymphadenopathy splenomegaly and hepatomegaly decreased during therapy with maximum improvement observed approximately 6 weeks after the treatment was initiated a progressive gain in weight was observed in all patients who thus responded to therapy jaundice hepatomegaly and liver functions were improved in two patients who presented such findings before therapy was initiated

The following is a summary of the case history and graphic representation of the course of the illness in one selected patient who had an excellent remission from CB 1348 treatment

*Case No 2 M.K.* a 43 year-old white woman was diagnosed as having Hodgkins disease by biopsy of a cervical lymph node in 1953 She received treatment with nitrogen mustard three courses of TEM three courses of deep x ray therapy over abdominal right cervical and supraclavicular lymph nodes and spleen and cortisone and butazolidine The patient gradually became refractory to all previous therapy In January 1954 she presented with fever anorexia marked generalized lymphadenopathy and marked splenomegaly Her weight was 119 pounds Her peripheral blood study showed 1 590 000 red blood cells per cubic millimeter 3800 white blood cells per cubic millimeter blood platelets 17 660 per cubic millimeter and 6.3 g of hemoglobin per 100 cc The patient was transfused before therapy was started She was given CB 1348 20 mg daily (0.4 mg/kg) for 30 days Her fever abated after 3 days of this therapy The enlarged lymph nodes and spleen regressed She gained 41 pounds The red blood cell level rose and remained about 3.5 million per cubic millimeter hemoglobin rose to 11.8 g % The remission lasted for 5 months At the end of this time she relapsed with 100 F temperature slight lymphadenopathy and recurrent splenomegaly She was then given CB 1348 6 mg daily for 21 days followed by a continuing daily maintenance dosage of 3 to 4 mg Her second complete remission has now been in progress for 10 months (Fig 1)

Thirteen patients—six males and seven females age range from 18 to 77 years—with blood and bone marrow diagnoses of acute monocytic leukemia were treated with CB 1348 All had marked anemia and





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thrombocytopenia. In all cases the bone marrow showed marked replacement (60 to 90%) of normal elements by monoblasts. One patient had received HN2. Two had been previously treated unsuccessfully with TEM. The other ten patients had received no therapy before CB 1348 was started.

Eight patients failed to respond to CB 1348 medication. Each of five patients of this group then subsequently received a course of HN2 without improvement. Four patients listed as showing "some effect" exhibited a temporary decrease of white blood cells but without improvement in red blood cells, platelets, or percentage of monoblasts in the bone marrow. After a course of CB 1348 22 mg daily (0.3 mg/kg) for 14 days a complete remission still in progress for 10 months was obtained in one patient. This patient was a 45 year-old white female who had complained of weakness for 5 months. Laboratory findings included red blood cells 2.51 million per cubic millimeter, white blood cells 1250 per cubic millimeter, hemoglobin 9.1 g %, platelets 90,400 per cubic millimeter, reticulocytes 5.2%. The bone marrow samples showed almost complete replacement of normal elements by monoblasts. After therapy she required no further transfusions. The peripheral blood now contains red blood cells 4.17 million per cubic millimeter, white blood cells 5950 per cubic millimeter with a normal differential, hemoglobin 14.4 g per 100 cc, platelets 800,640 per cubic millimeter, reticulocytes 3.4%. The bone marrow has become essentially normal.

Two patients with reticulum cell sarcoma were treated. A 64 year old white male with reticulum cell sarcoma, diagnosed by an abdominal lymph node biopsy, was treated with CB 1348. He showed progressive disseminated disease with profound weight loss. At physical examination several large abdominal masses were palpable and large retroperitoneal and retrogastric tumors were demonstrated by x ray. He received a course of CB 1348 16 mg (0.3 mg/kg) daily for 21 days followed by a maintenance dosage of 4 to 8 mg daily. The patient regained 27 pounds in weight and is now back at his normal activities. A marked regression of the abdominal tumor masses was obtained. His remission has been in progress for 7 months. The second patient, a 63 year old white female with a similarly diagnosed large abdominal tumor mass refractory to deep x ray treatment, has had some clinical improvement with regression in the tumor on CB 1348 therapy for 12 weeks.

Three patients with chronic lymphatic leukemia in advanced stages of the disease, characterized by practically complete replacement of the normal elements of the bone marrow by lymphocytes with marked

neutropenia anemia and thrombocytopenia were treated. They had become refractory to radioactive phosphorus and x ray therapy directed over the packed cell flat bones. No further clinical or hematologic improvement was observed.

One patient with acute lymphatic leukemia, one with mycosis fungoides and one with multiple myeloma were treated unsuccessfully with CB 1348. It is concluded from the reported observations that CB 1348 is of some value in the treatment of selected patients with disseminated Hodgkin's disease as a supplement to x ray therapy and in an occasional case of monocytic leukemia and reticulum cell sarcoma.

It has been a safer drug in our hands than triethylenemelamine (TEM). It is preferred over nitrogen mustard in some cases because it has practically no side effects and it has proved to be less damaging to the hematopoietic system.

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CHAIRMAN BETHELL: Thank you, Dr. Doan. It is late but we should like to give an opportunity to the audience to ask any question. We have now heard a report based on personal experience by each member of the panel and I shall ask for questions and invite discussion from the audience. Dr. Wintrobe, perhaps you would care to comment now?

DR. WINTROBE: There is one comment I should like to make. The impression seems to have been left that Myleran is without any toxic effects whatever. I think it ought to be pointed out that Myleran is not without toxic effects; that there may be thrombocytopenia associated with its use; that even marrow aplasia perhaps can occur. So like all the agents we are talking about there is good with the bad, although I quite agree with the impression that has been given, namely that it is an extremely useful agent for the treatment of chronic myelocytic leukemia.

I should like to echo Dr. Gellhorn's question also and should like to hear from Dr. Bierman and would ask him to state his evidence concerning the effectiveness of Myleran in acute leukemia.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL I have Dr Bierman in mind but are there any other members of the panel who would like to comment at this time?

DR DAMESHEK I should like to end on a note of optimism in that not infrequently we do get some remarkable results in some of our cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia—patients who start out with a very high white cell count and with many symptoms. With the use of TEM there are often striking clinical and hematologic remissions which may last for several years. In chronic granulocytic leukemia the consistency of the results with Myleran is indeed remarkable.

Also even in acute leukemia where treatment is so often of pathetic benefit I occasionally find myself having feelings of optimism not only because of the excellent remissions so frequently obtained with aminopterin in the childhood type but because of the evidence occasionally found that the therapy has actually "burnt out" the leukemic process. We autopsied three such cases. Death was due to hemorrhage but there was no histologic evidence of the previous leukemic process. Naturally these deaths are by no means what one can call good results. However I must mention another child who was in complete remission for 4 years clinically and hematologically. At the end of that time he developed a remarkable urogenital abnormality—stony enlargement of the testicles, great thickening of the ureters and bladder—and eventually died of renal disease secondary to ureteral obstruction. Owing to the continuous use of aminopterin the leukemic process had apparently been "burned out" leaving rests of leukemic cells in the kidneys, ureters, bladder and testicles. Thus one may visualize in the I hope not too distant future the development of even more potent and specific chemicals that may conceivably "burn out" a leukemic process and leave normal tissues intact, thus allowing long continued remissions. At present, I think we must concede that the outlook for patients with acute leukemia is discouraging.

DR SIDNEY FARBER Mr Chairman may I say something that I think ought to be said? Dr Dameshek has confused me. If we today can have 10% of 560 children alive 30 months after the onset of acute leukemia and in so many instances in excellent health going to school and playing normally then that represents an achievement of major importance on the part of total care including the use of antileukemic agents.

If we can have 50% alive at 14 or 15 months that represents another major achievement for those 50% of children for their parents for the doctors who take care of them and for the stimulation of research workers who hope to produce something better while these children are still

neutropenia anemia and thrombocytopenia were treated. They had become refractory to radioactive phosphorus and x ray therapy directed over the packed cell flat bones. No further clinical or hematologic improvement was observed.

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I should like to echo Dr. Gellhorn's question also and should like to hear from Dr. Bierman and would ask him to state his evidence concerning the effectiveness of Myleran in acute leukemia.

**CHAIRMAN BETHELL** I am certain that no one of us is satisfied with our present position in the treatment of acute leukemia. Nevertheless I feel that there is room for optimism for a hopeful progressivism.

I am reminded of the fact that there was an outstanding symposium on the subject of hematology in 1939 at the University of Wisconsin. I am quite sure that most of what we have said tonight is completely beyond any anticipation or opinions that prevailed at that time. That was some 16 or 17 years ago. I am equally confident that in less time than 16 years there will be held another symposium such as this in which even greater progress will be evidenced. So I believe we can take heart but we certainly recognize the shortcomings of our present knowledge and therapeutic materials.

Now Dr Bierman may we hear from you?

**DR. HOWARD R. BIERMAN** (Duarte, California) Apparently Dr Dameshek got me into this too asking me to give our experience with the treatment of acute granulocytic leukemia in a 40-year-old male.

We have had the privilege of working with Myleran since the fall of 1951 when Dr Haddow sent us some of the original compound shortly after he, Dr Timmis and Dr Galton had started to use it prior to their reports in England. We now have in our combined experience approximately fifty cases the longest one of which is a man who has gone since October 1951 with apparently a very benign course.

The original report by Dr Petrakis in 1953 recorded two cases of acute leukemia or subacute granulocytic leukemia with predominantly immature blasts in marrow and blood with survival for 6 months after therapy. The experience since that time has been with eight comparable cases of either acute or subacute leukemia some with rather fulminating courses and I believe our experience now is about the same an average survival of about 6 months after initiation of therapy.

I think what Dr Farber said earlier in connection with the acute leukemias should be given great consideration in chronic leukemias—that one should use all the available adjuncts to therapy including anti-hemorrhagic agents and antibiotics—in an effort to support patients.

Our experience with cortisone in cases of granulocytic leukemia has not been as happy as in lymphocytic leukemia. We have seen six unfortunate situations which we think were exacerbations in chronic granulocytic leukemia using the corticoids either cortisone or hydrocortisone.

As for the toxic effects of Myleran given over long periods of time in some instances for 2 or 3 years we have observed three cases of

alive I believe Dr Burchenal and all the rest of us on the panel who have worked with children in large numbers have had an experience that is not in accord with Dr Dameshek's

DR WILLIAM DAMESHEK There can be no question that the introduction of the folic acid antagonists for the treatment of acute leukemia is a major achievement. One cannot quibble about that. I think Dr Farber you should be congratulated on it. However I do think that these agents are by no means the best of all possible therapeutic principles particularly in the adult group. They represent simply the best therapy we have as of now. If they *were* the best possible agents I think we would be getting far better results than the 50% survival at the end of 10 months or the 10% survival at the end of a year or two.

DR SIDNEY FARBER May I make myself clear? I was talking about the folic acid antagonists the purine antagonists ACTH cortisone the compounds Dr Hill talked about and so on in addition to everything else we do for these children. I was not talking about any one group. These figures refer only to children and not to adults.

DR WILLIAM DAMESHEK To continue I think it is truly wonderful that one can reverse the course of some cases of acute leukemia. This is without doubt a major achievement and one which frankly I for one never expected to see when it was first reported. The trouble with it is that every single one of these children or adults once they have obtained a remission will relapse whether in 2 months or in 2 years. With very rare exceptions relapse is certain and they all go on to die. Their last few months on earth are often a nightmare of porcine obesity painful legs bleeding and suffering parents.

That is why I say it is of *pathetic benefit*—benefit because there is a temporary beneficial effect *pathetic* because there is simply a prolongation of the inevitable. Also pathetic because it must be realized by now that both the folic acid antagonists and 6-mercaptopurine either alone or in combination with the steroids can do only so much and no more. Better agents are undoubtedly around the corner and that is why I think we will eventually be able to keep leukemia under control. When one realizes that leukemia can be reversed even temporarily I feel rather optimistic but when I see our present day results however good they may look on paper I am depressed. This ambivalence of feeling is what has made my remarks so confusing to Dr Farber and doubtless to myself as well.



radiologists in this audience so I shall have to constitute myself the international defender of radiology for the evening and say that I think most radiologists disapprove of the indiscriminate and drastic and excessively early use of radiotherapy in the management of such cases

All too often however the real situation is that the patient is referred by a physician whether it be the hematologist or any other physician not for the opinion of the radiotherapist as to whether radiation therapy is needed or not, but with what amounts virtually to a prescription an order if you will for radiotherapy leaving the radiotherapist in the difficult position either of treating the patient or making a fool out of the referring physician

Second I think it would be very misleading to this audience if the place of radiotherapy were not clearly stated in relation to the various agents that have been discussed this evening as things stand at the present time I realize that radiotherapy has been with us for many years and the novelty has worn off and certainly I do not begrudge any of you gentlemen the intellectual stimulation and pleasure that comes from working with these novel agents and evaluating them I think it is only fair to the audience however to summarize the situation by saying that at the present moment the single most consistently useful agent in the management of the chronic leukemias and lympho-sarcomas and Hodgkin's disease is still radiation therapy in one form or another

Finally we have had occasion in a small handful of cases to bring patients with chronic myelocytic leukemia under remission with radiotherapy and then to follow this up with maintenance doses of either urethan or Myleran Our experience is so limited that I don't believe we can draw any conclusions except that the remissions have seemed to be of unusually long duration I wonder if any of the panelists have had any experience with this combination, and I also want to ask Dr Dameshek whether his statement that Myleran is more convenient to use than radiation therapy in the management of chronic myelocytic leukemia relates to the fact that he does not have an x ray machine in his office or that he sincerely believes that Myleran is the better agent

CHAIRMAN BETHELL By the title of this discussion, which has to do with "new chemical agents" the topic of radiation therapy is largely excluded Nevertheless I tried without much success to induce our panelists to express opinions on the relative merits and the appropriate situations for the use of drugs and ionizing radiation

I don't think you meant to imply did you Dr Kaplan that the

alopecia and two peculiar instances of salivary gland aplasia with complete dryness of the mouth yet in one instance there was intense lacrimation. The patient a woman had this condition for over a year—she had received in the course of 18 months of a rather active leukemia 1600 mg of Myleran—and at necropsy there was no evidence of any aplasia of the marrow. We have seen two instances of an unusual type of cardiac failure of course we don't know whether or not this is related to the Myleran.

I should like to close with a suggestion. I would not minimize the value of  $P^{32}$  and x ray therapy in combination with drugs particularly in the treatment of chronic leukemias. I know this is intended to be a panel on chemotherapy but I think the judicious use of  $P^{32}$  and x ray therapy sometimes has a very definite place in the therapy of leukemia.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. Dr Storti your name has been associated with the use of some of these compounds particularly Colcemid. Would you like to comment on your experience with Colcemid?

(Dr Storti replied in French.)

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. I shall ask Dr Moeschlin to summarize in English Dr Storti's remarks.

DR MOESCHLIN. I am sorry you didn't all understand but Dr Storti stated that in his experience Colcemid is very useful in some cases of Hodgkin's disease when all the other drugs have proved to be less effective. He points out however that one has to be very careful in controlling granulocytes because in these cases granulocytopenia may occur and it may be induced by very small doses especially since in many of these advanced cases there is already leukopenia.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL. Are there any other questions or comments?

DR H. S. KAPLAN (San Francisco California). Since Dr Bethell raised the question of the history of colchicine therapy I might first state parenthetically that the initial work on the treatment of experimental leukemias with colchicine was done 19 years ago by the modest gentleman on my right Dr Arthur Kirschbaum.

What I really wish to do is to bring up two agents one of which has not been mentioned except disparagingly until Dr Bierman spoke namely irradiation and the second urethan which has not been mentioned at all this evening.

I deeply regret Dr Moeschlin's comment about the use of radiotherapy in chronic lymphatic leukemia. I don't know if there are other

DR. GEORGE J. FUHRMAN (New York City) Despite the relative non-specificity of the folic acid antagonists and other antimetabolites they nevertheless have a great deal of effectiveness in many of the acute leukemias. This effectiveness must be due in some part at least, to the great avidity of these cells for the metabolite and hence also for the antimetabolite. Indeed I believe Dr. Bethell and his group have shown that certain leukemic cells possess higher concentrations of folic acid than do normal cells of the same series.

The first part of my question is this: Is it possible to take an acute leukemia and push it still further—that is to say, to increase the great avidity of these cells for metabolites and antimetabolites to an even greater degree than existed prior to interference?

Second, if this is possible and if an antimetabolite is administered at the time when the increased avidity exists, would it then not be possible to have a cell which is even further sensitized to the action of the antimetabolite and even more specifically so, and thus perhaps either reduce the levels of antimetabolite needed in the patient or reduce the toxic side effects? There would thus be envisioned hypothetically a type of cancer chemotherapy combination treatment not like that suggested by Dr. Burchenal, which consists of two blocking agents, but rather a carefully timed combination of a provocative agent to stimulate the intake of a metabolite followed at the proper moment by the antimetabolite.

CHAIRMAN BTHELL: I think the same reasoning may be applied to the use of cytotoxic agents such as the enhanced introduction of radioactive materials into cells through special means as has been suggested by Dr. William Adams in Los Angeles. He proposes to induce a phosphorus diuresis with loss of phosphorus from malignant cells and subsequent increased uptake of phosphorus as carrier for  $P^{32}$ . I am afraid however that such considerations take us beyond the scope of the discussion this evening. Are there other questions or comments?

DR. WILLIAM R. BEST (Chicago, Illinois): One of the methods of treatment in acute leukemia is to give the drug until a severe leukopenic condition is reached and then to continue it hoping to increase the likelihood of remission. Most of us I think are afraid to do that. I wonder if we could have some comment from the panelists on how they feel about this point of view.

position of the radiotherapist is analogous to that of the dispensing pharmacist? I am sure that all the members of this panel have access to radiation therapy and that we take advantage of that access and that we have amicable and mutually satisfying relationships with our radiotherapists. Moreover included in radiation there is of course the use of radioactive isotopes which many of us actually control. So I do not believe we are really talking about rival therapies or therapists. I certainly do believe that the judicious use of the agents which we have discussed tonight in conjunction with radiation constitutes the best forms of treatment that we have available for most cases of chronic leukemia and lymphoma. Dr Dameshek, would you like to comment on the subject since reference was made to your expressed views?

DR DAMESHEK. Of course I would agree with Dr Kaplan. There is no question but that x ray therapy in cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia and chronic granulocytic leukemia is a highly useful procedure. I doubt that as yet we have any really good statistics as to the effective life of an individual with chronic lymphocytic leukemia or chronic granulocytic leukemia as treated by x ray alone or by x ray and urethan or by Myleran alone.

It is possible that x ray alone might be just as effective as Myleran alone. In our experience it is nice to have an agent—a pill—that a patient can take by mouth which will act as effectively as x ray therapy in cases of chronic granulocytic leukemia. Our remissions are just as good. The patient feels just as well. The spleen regresses just as satisfactorily. And I like Myleran because of the ease of therapy. Furthermore there is the matter of divided responsibility. We don't like to ask the radiologist to function merely as a technician and furthermore we like to control our own patients so we give the patient a pill and it works remarkably well. Whether it is better than x ray I can't say. I have the personal impression that it is better but that question is undecided.

Concerning urethan prior to the introduction of Myleran we treated all our patients who had chronic granulocytic leukemia with x ray first reducing the leukocyte counts to reasonably low levels and then instituting urethan as maintenance therapy. We have since discontinued that practice. I think we should have mentioned urethan with particular reference to chronic plasmocytic leukemia which is another name for multiple myeloma. Multiple myeloma, I feel is chronic plasmocytic leukemia—more or less aleukemic to be sure. Urethan is relatively useful in that disorder perhaps more valuable in Durham than it is in Boston but still relatively useful.

In the early report by Petrakis on the use of Myleran one of the patients died of bronchogenic carcinoma

I should like to ask if anyone here has had reason to suspect that the use of Myleran might possibly be associated with a second tumor?

CHAIRMAN BETHIELL Dr Wintrobe will you reply?

DR WINTROBE With regard to Dr Schillings question my answer would be that we have not had that experience and I wonder if this association is not a matter of coincidence I have seen patients with acute leukemia who have had other tumors and their occurrence was at such a time that one could not attribute it to chemotherapy Further more on theoretical grounds would one not expect that a longer time of exposure to the chemotherapeutic agent would be necessary to produce the tumor if the drug were the cause? If we consider some of Haddows experiments with these agents in producing tumors I wonder if that possibility doesn't seem more likely and that the answer to your question is that such a relationship is coincidence rather than cause and effect Of course I don't know the final answer

DR MOISES CHEDIAK (Havana Cuba) I should like to ask the panel about Actinomycin C and their experience with the use of this drug in some of these diseases and also about colchicine in the treatment of Hodgkins disease

I should like to ask Dr Dameshek in view of his recent visit to Japan what is the present status of Neomycin and Sarcomycin in the treatment of these malignancies?

Finally I should like to hear a word about Fowlers solution which was not mentioned Is there still a place for this agent in maintenance of remissions or must it be discarded from our armamentarium?

CHAIRMAN BETHIELL Arsenic in the form of potassium arsenite or Fowlers solution was the first chemotherapeutic agent introduced in 1865 used in the treatment of chronic leukemia with success and of course it is still effective We believe however that the compounds we have been talking about have advantages over Fowlers solution in terms of ease of control length of remission and avoidance of the undesirable side effects of prolonged administration of arsenic

I should like Dr Dameshek to answer the question addressed to him by Dr Chedhak

DR DAMESHEK Actinomycin C is an antibiotic developed by Professor Waksman and then was taken up fairly recently in Germany

CHAIRMAN BETHELL I don't know to whom to address that question. Would you like to address the question to someone in particular?

DR BEST Perhaps Dr Farber would be the best one to answer it.

DR FARBER The rule we follow is this. As long as the leukopenia is explained on the basis of replacement of the bone marrow by leukemic cells, we continue to treat. That rule has been a safe one to follow.

CHAIRMAN BETHELL Dr Burchenal, do you want to comment on this point?

DR BURCHENAL I might say that Dr Byron Hall has used mercaptopurine in much larger doses than we have, and his principle was to pay no attention to the white count but to treat until the marrow became somewhat aplastic. As soon as the marrow became seriously aplastic, he stopped therapy. He got better results in adults with these higher doses of mercaptopurine than we could ever get with our more conservative dosage.

In answer to Dr Fuhrman, the only situation I know of where there has been some attempt at prior conditioning of the leukemia has been in connection with work done by Dr Lloyd Law. I will take a chance that I am saying the right thing. He is in the audience and can correct me if I am wrong. Dr Law treated mouse leukemia with azaguanine until it became resistant to or dependent on that drug, and then he observed a markedly increased sensitivity to amethopterin. I think he developed a similar situation by conditioning with mercaptopurine. The mercaptopurine-resistant cell was very sensitive to amethopterin. We think maybe we have seen this phenomenon to a certain extent in some of the patients, particularly in the adult group who were treated first with mercaptopurine and who then seemed to respond better to amethopterin than we would ordinarily have expected. Dr Ellison has been concerned with this phase of the work.

DR ROBERT F SCHILLING (Madison, Wisconsin) It is common knowledge that agents used in the treatment of leukemia, as well as cancer chemotherapy in general, including observations on experimental animals, frequently have the potentiality of inducing or producing tumors. In the patients we have treated with Mylerin, two out of twenty-three have developed second seemingly unrelated malignancies. One had a bronchogenic carcinoma and the other had a glioblastoma multiforme. These neoplasms were the causes of death in the two patients.

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for the therapy of Hodgkins disease. We did some studies with this material in Hodgkins disease but observed absolutely no effect in a series of five cases. So as far as I am concerned it has no value. I know Dr. Farber also has had some experience with it.

As far as Neomycin and the other drugs used in Japan are concerned I am sorry but I didn't get to learn what the Japanese are doing in this connection.

**DR. FARBER:** We have not studied Actinomycin C in man. That has been studied extensively by French and German workers and they have reported effects worthy of comment at least in Hodgkins disease and chronic lymphocytic leukemia and lymphosarcoma as well as in scattered forms of carcinoma. There is no effect in acute leukemia.

We have studied rather extensively in the past two years Actinomycin D, a different material from Actinomycin C, and also an antibiotic originated by Professor Waksman. This compound has no effect at all in acute leukemia. We are studying its effect in chronic lymphocytic leukemia, Hodgkins disease and lymphosarcoma and in certain of the epithelial tumors but our observations are much too recent to be commented on any further.

**DR. BURCHENAL:** As far as Sarcomycin is concerned Dr. Gordon McGill of our group treated a few cases and Dr. Gellhorn had a series of nine more, some twenty five in all. We gave doses up to as much as 8 g. a day intravenously which is much more than the Japanese usually employed. Their dosage I think was rarely above 2 g. a day. We saw no significant objective effects. That is correct for your series too is it not Dr. Gellhorn?

**DR. GELLHORN:** Yes.

**CHAIRMAN BETHELL:** Before adjourning the discussion I should like to thank the members of the panel and the participants from the floor for their enlightened and stimulating contributions and I wish to re-emphasize that in my view we are justified in continuing our work on chemical agents in the treatment of the leukemias in a spirit of optimism and with the sound expectation that we have a great deal to look forward to in the future.

The meeting is adjourned.



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